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ABSTRACT

Celebrating the Illinois Reading Council's 25th anniversary year, this 2-part monograph presents 11 papers on diverse aspects of reading and literacy. Papers in the first part, called "Historical Reflections and Challenges," are: "The Illinois Reading Council Celebrates 25 Years" (John W. Logan); "The 'Illinois Reading Council Journal': Celebrating the Past, Challenging the Future" (Roberta L. Berglund); "Twenty-Two Years since Charles Read's 'Preschool Children's Knowledge of English Phonology': What Inventive Spellers Have Taught Us" (Donald J. Richgels); and "Standardized Reading Tests: Then and Now" (Peggy VanLeirsburg). In part 2, entitled "Facilitating Change," papers are: "The Reading-Writing Relationship: Empirical Evidence for the Reconceptualization of Literacy" (June E. Barnhart); "Family Histories: A Connection to the Past and the Future" (Barbara Kutterer Haas); "New Ideas for Reading Group Placement: No More 'Buzzards!'" (Mary Ann Wham); "Venturing into the Computer Lab: What Do You Pack for a Quest?" (Janet M. Beyersdorfer); "The Use of the Reading Diary for Obtaining Reading Behavior Data among Adults" (M. Cecil Smith & Norman A. Stahl); "Revising the Reading/Language Arts Report Card" (Char Hallmann & John Logan); and "ICARE: Developing Positive Attitudes toward Reading" (Eugene H. Cramer). (RS)

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JERRY L. JOHNS, EDITOR

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Literacy:

Celebration and Challenge

Literacy: Celebration and Challenge

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Illinois Reading Council Silver Anniversary Monograph

An Illinois Reading Council Publication

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Preface

Writing is hard work as authors in this volume already knew or quickly learned. I thank them for their discipline, patience, and persistence. A statewide call for manuscripts was issued to help celebrate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Illinois Reading Council. I remember attending leadership workshops, sharing flyers, preparing calls for manuscripts in the *IRC Communicator* and journal, talking with potential authors, and encouraging local council presidents and state officers to spread the word—all for the purpose of securing possible manuscripts for the monograph. The publicity paid off: over forty professionals interested in literacy responded with ideas for manuscripts.

Competing demands for time and a host of other reasons meant that some well-intentioned authors did not submit manuscripts for consideration. Others who submitted their work found that reviewers had numerous suggestions for revision. Some authors chose to revise and resubmit; others did not. Time constraints necessary to get this volume ready for the annual conference meant that I was not able to give a few authors the opportunity to revise their manuscripts and resubmit them. I hope these authors will continue to refine their manuscripts and possibly submit them to the *Illinois Reading Council Journal* for publication consideration.

Finally, I extend special thanks to Lorri Davis, who conceptualized the volume, the Publications Committee, which reviewed the manuscripts submitted, the Monograph Committee, which also reviewed the manuscripts, and the assistant editors, Sue Davis and Ruth Olle, who helped in many ways. I believe the manuscripts in this volume will help the Illinois Reading Council help celebrate the past and challenge us to make positive progress to greater achievements in literacy.

Jerry L. Johns

PART I

Historical Reflections and Challenges

The Illinois Reading Council Celebrates 25 Years

John W. Logan

As we celebrate the Illinois Reading Council's 25th Anniversary Year, it is an appropriate time to revisit historical events, to examine the present, and to contemplate what the future holds for our organization.

A Brief Historical Perspective of IRC

The Illinois Reading Council was chartered as an affiliate of the International Reading Association by a small group of members committed to the idea of fostering reading statewide. Carol Winkley, one of the IRC co-founders, shared an historical perspective at the 1992 IRC Conference Banquet. She noted that the first IRC members often met in small groups in councils that dotted a few counties in the state. She and others traveled throughout Illinois to encourage the formation of additional local councils and, eventually, special-interest councils.

Years later, as IRC experienced growing pains, it established state headquarters in Bloomington, Illinois. The establishment of IRC headquarters was significant because it provided the organization with space to keep records, office supplies, and equipment. More importantly, it created a meeting place to conduct the business of the organization. IRC remains one of the few states in the nation with a state headquarters office to serve its membership.

As the organization's membership continued to grow, so did the need for an employee to provide secretarial support services. As a result, IRC created the position of Executive Secretary in 1986. A statewide newsletter and journal also were designed to share knowledge about reading and topics related to IRC membership.

IRC Today

Today, the Illinois Reading Council has emerged as one of the nation's largest affiliates of the International Reading Association. Events such as the IRC annual conference attract thousands of

Illinois teachers, administrators, and teacher educators each year. IRC membership continues to grow (close to 9,000 members!) and boasts one of the largest IRA memberships and IRA student memberships in the nation.

Over thirty IRC local and special-interest councils work collaboratively toward the common goal of fostering literacy in every county throughout the state. A wide range of IRC Standing Committees, from publications and computers and reading to others such as intellectual freedom and governmental relations, strive to network and develop lines of communication at all levels. Numerous publications such as the quarterly journal and state newsletter, as well as a wide range of monographs, brochures, and related reports, offer a unique blend of educational and research information useful in combatting illiteracy in Illinois.

Over the past two years, IRC headquarters has purchased some of the best in cutting-edge technology. A large-screen Macintosh computer with a laser printer, a new collating copy machine, and the recent purchase of a facsimile machine all provide IRC members and the Executive Secretary with the best resources available.

A Bright Future for IRC

The future is bright for the Illinois Reading Council. In addition to the dozens of statewide projects to foster literacy in Illinois, the IRC has made a progressive commitment to extending its resources beyond its own boundaries. A newly funded project, co-sponsored with the Michigan Reading Association, to foster literacy in Argentina will provide textbooks, staff development, resources, and children's literature materials to less-advantaged schools in South America. Teachers from Argentina and Illinois will be afforded opportunities to network and exchange ideas about literacy, cultural diversity, and classroom ideas through a communication exchange program.

IRC will examine its current organizational structure in the coming year. The reorganization of the current Board of Directors can better meet the needs of an expanding organization.

Issues in literacy will continue to challenge IRC. What positions, resolutions, and research will emerge from IRC in the future? Will IRC take a proactive leadership role in issues related to professional standards, authentic assessment, integration of the curriculum, and computer technology? Find out as the years unfold!

IRC's heritage is rich in leadership, creativity, and research. *You* are IRC. You can make a difference and shape the future of literacy in Illinois.

John W. Logan, President of the Illinois Reading Council, is the Reading Coordinator in Wheeling School District 21.

The *Illinois Reading Council Journal*: Celebrating the Past, Challenging the Future

Roberta L. Berglund

> The *Illinois Reading Council Journal* will accept manuscripts in the following categories: research in reading commentary, reading opinion, critiques on reading projects, comments for the reading teacher, speak out column, reading history pertaining to the state of Illinois or to reading departments of Illinois colleges or universities, and questions for an expert in reading to answer.
>
> A. G. Thurston

The above call for manuscripts appeared in the initial issue of the *Illinois Reading Council Journal* (Vol. 1, No. 1) published in March, 1973. Since its inception, the *Journal* has become an important voice for the Illinois Reading Council and has achieved acclaim as a respected journal in the field of reading.

In the twenty years of its existence, the journal has grown and changed as the result of the vision and efforts of six different editorial teams and their advisory boards. A. G. Thurston was the first editor followed by Jerry Johns, Gene Cramer, Evelyn Jackson, Roberta Berglund, and the current co-editors, Barbara Johnson and Peter Fisher. Initially, the journal contained 31 pages and was published just once a year, always in the spring. It remained an annual publication until 1978 when the publication frequency was increased to twice a year, fall and spring. The *Journal* continued as a semi-annual publication from 1978 until 1990 when a winter issue was added. Then, in 1991, the *Journal* achieved quarterly status with the addition of a summer issue.

As the frequency of publication increased, so did the number of pages in the *Journal*. Thurston, Johns, and Cramer generally maintained the 32-page size, but as the circulation of the *Journal* grew, the number of manuscripts submitted for publication escalated. During Evelyn Jackson's term as editor, the journal's average length expanded to 48 pages with one issue attaining a size of 64 pages. The 13 issues produced during Roberta Berglund's leadership aver-

aged 56 pages in length. In short, during its 20-year evolution, the *Journal* has doubled in number of pages per issue and quadrupled its frequency of publication, thus providing a professional publication reflecting the expanding size and scope of the Illinois Reading Council and, indeed, the field of reading.

The contents of the early issues of the *IRCJ* provided introductions to ideas and people that, over the years, have had significant influence in the professional literature. A focus on the importance of meaning during reading instruction was highlighted in Hillerich's 1974 article concerning the meaningful teaching of word recognition and in Stauffer and Harrell's 1975 contribution regarding inquiry reading. Using children's literature in reading instruction and helping children enjoy reading were discussed by Adams in 1973 and developed by Larrick and Fagerlie in 1975. The third issue of the *Journal* contained an interview with popular author and storyteller, Bill Martin. In 1976, Alan Purves outlined what we now know as reader response theory and in 1979 Steinruck discussed the value of using retelling to investigate and enhance comprehension.

Additional statistics regarding the emergence of the *Journal* could be shared; however, it is often stories and recollections that help bring concepts to life. Thus, each of the editors, current and past, have been invited to share perspectives from their terms as editors of the *Journal*. Most help us celebrate the past, while two challenge us to envision the future.

CELEBRATE THE PAST: THE EDITORS REMEMBER

The First *Illinois Reading Council Journal*
A. G. Thurston

In 1972, the president-elect of the Illinois Reading Council, David C. Rhoads, created a list of goals and objectives that he wished to accomplish during his term of office. One of them was to initiate a state reading journal.

I was appointed chair of the newly-formed Publications Committee and, in the fall of 1972, I met with a small group of individuals at Bradley University to discuss the viability of the

president-elect's goal. The members of my committee were Bettye Eisler of Peoria, Lorna Nunes of Edwardsville, Melva Randolph of Macomb, Mary Jane Thurston of Batavia, and Luceille Werner of Streator.

The president-elect's charge to the committee was presented, discussed, and accepted. I was appointed editor of the first *Illinois Reading Council Journal*. My qualifications included knowledge of the demands and needs of publishing and a commitment to carry through with whatever decisions were made.

In truth, the first edition was produced using John Dewey's dictum that one learns by doing. The first journal's content, its heart and soul, resulted from hours and hours of abashedly begging members to write articles. This primitive approach not only led to the first journal, but to succeeding journals. There had to be a first journal, and until there was a first journal, we were a nonentity in the eyes of the members. The code word here was "exposure" to the intended audience of the publication.

As a goal for the journal, we felt the publication should be open and accessible to all members. All articles were to be kept short as the first journal would only have 31 pages. These parameters dictated what material could be used. It was our desire to include many short articles rather than one or two longer ones. Because accessibility was a goal, the first journal listed 15 articles with authors of varied backgrounds. Nine university authors and four classroom teachers contributed, with two pages set aside for the president and the president-elect. There were 15 writers in all. One other factor influenced our judgments; there was a dearth of manuscripts. Yet, the journal was published with accessibility a prominent feature. Through the assistance of DeKalb's Irene Newquist, whose husband owned a print shop, the 1972-73 *Journal* was finally printed.

Before we had time to reflect on our accomplishment, three major problems presented themselves. No one had had the vision to see that when the boxes and boxes of journals arrived, something had to be done with them! No one had considered a means of distribution. Also, the time frame for decisions was zero as the journals arrived in conjunction with the annual state meeting. Also, the editor had no budget to pay for the publishing expenses as no money

had been allocated to the Publications Committee to pay bills. No time! No money! Bills to pay! No way to distribute the journals! What to do? We made up our own unique solutions.

Mary Jane Thurston and I volunteered to contribute two days at the state meeting to "hawking," like the common peddlers we were, the newly-printed journals for 50 cents each or for promissory notes. We wore funny hats and carried signs while calling out to passers-by to come buy the *Journal*. Some members had not been informed that there was to be such a publication. Many members wanted to help, and the "hawkers" survived two intense days of peddling. Surprisingly, many members did receive the first issue.

The *Illinois Reading Council Journal* was built on David Rhoads' vision for a state reading journal. My valiant and hard-working committee brought the hopes and dreams of an organization into reality. In the succeeding years, changes were made. The editor no longer had to sell magazines in hallways, and the state council arranged for a budget for the *Journal*.

Not all our efforts were successful. Experiments in guest-featured pieces and in soliciting advertising later proved to be counterproductive. Journal layout, design and artwork, distribution, accounting, and editorial policies were addressed as the problems surfaced. Procedures for articulation were developed and the members of the Illinois Reading Council provided multitudes of ideas to build the *Journal* into the magnificent voice for reading teachers that it is today.

But, the job is not done; it never is. Illinois Reading Council members must continue to build avenues to help students learn to love to read, to assist teachers in the teaching of reading through all subjects, and to create school environments and community conditions to make reading recognized for its true worth; the open door to all learning.

Reflections on the *IRCJ*: 1977-1980
Jerry L. Johns

Little did I realize that my editorial in the 1976 *IRCJ*, edited by George Thurston, would influence my editorship. In that editorial,

I argued for more than one journal during each calendar year. By volume 6 (1978), the Board of Directors of the Illinois Reading Council had approved two journals each year. My work load had just doubled!

During my tenure as editor, several changes were made in both policies and format. Some of these changes still exist in the most recent *IRCJ*. An Editorial Advisory Board was established with clear policies for the impartial review of manuscripts. In essence, the *IRCJ* became a refereed journal. To help contributors, I developed an "Information for Authors" page that appeared inside the back cover of the journal. A variation of that page has been continued in each issue of the *IRCJ*.

The task of encouraging manuscript submissions was never-ending. I tried to assist and encourage potential authors by preparing informative editorials about manuscript preparation and submission (volume 6, number 1) and contacting professionals who might send in a manuscript for review. Numerous flyers and leaflets were also distributed at conferences and reading council activities throughout the state.

From 1974 through volume 8, number 1, the *IRCJ* was produced by Printing Services at Northern Illinois University. The physical dimensions of "my" first issue of the *IRCJ* were made a bit larger although the number of pages per issue was never more than 32. Budget considerations were the major concern. I'm not sure that I would have had enough manuscript copy to fill more pages if the journal budget had been larger. I genuinely enjoyed working with production staff, editorial advisors, and authors. I learned a lot about every aspect of producing a journal. Even today, as I page through the issues I edited, I remember special stories about some of the articles. I am also grateful for Hilkka, a talented artist, who designed some of the covers. My favorite remains the one devoted to the International Year of the Child (volume 7, numbers 1 and 2). That cover is worth a second look.

Contributors were the heart of the *IRCJ* during my tenure. Over 50 names were associated with the articles that appeared. There were no columns because the intent was to establish a refereed journal where each submission would be impartially

evaluated by members of the Editorial Advisory Board. How manuscripts were selected was an extremely important consideration during this era of the *IRCJ*, and all those who submitted manuscripts made it possible for the *IRCJ* to flourish.

There were many professionals who willingly shared their talents to achieve a quality journal. Nancy Padak was one of them. I mention her name because she will soon become one of the editors of *The Reading Teacher*. I like to think that her association with the *IRCJ* helped provide a solid foundation for the challenges she will face during her tenure.

My overriding goal as editor of the *IRCJ* was to produce a high-quality journal that would impact the readership. I hope readers of the *IRCJ* found challenges, insights, and ideas to assist their work in literacy.

The Cover Story
Gene Cramer

My term as editor of the *Illinois Reading Council Journal* ran from Fall 1980 through Spring 1984, and I have many happy memories of that time. Taking over the editorship of the *IRCJ* after the high standards set by my immediate predecessor, Jerry Johns, presented many challenges. Maintaining the journal at that level and even improving upon it, if possible, were uppermost on my agenda. But I remember that the thing that concerned me the most as the incoming editor was producing covers for the journal that would be as attractive as those that had come before.

"Don't judge a book by its cover." This proverb leaps into my mind as I reflect about my four years as editor of the *Illinois Reading Council Journal*. The reason for this is quite simple. From my experience, I am quite certain that many people do, in fact, judge a publication by its outer appearance. I was confident that the contents of the *IRCJ* were of value to our readers, but my feeling was that not enough IRC members actually took the time to read most of those contents.

I wanted *IRCJ* covers that would reflect the growing interest in the Illinois Reading Council, and, if possible, attract even more new

members to our expanding organization. I felt that the covers should not be merely attractive; they should be so compelling that readers would want to open up the journal and become involved with the contents and the Illinois Reading Council.

The first cover featured a large and vivid orange ball with a series of concentric half-circles above it, giving it the appearance of a thrusting piston. The words "Illinois Reading Council Journal" in the center of the orange ball seemed to be pushing toward the viewer. As a starter cover, it was OK, but not as exciting as I had hoped.

However, the second cover was, to my mind at least, a disaster. As Yogi Berra used to say, "You could look it up!" It was the Spring 1981 issue, and my graphics designer, Meg Halsey, and I thought that some gentle, spring-like colors would be appropriate. Accordingly, she designed a row of books, vertically in a gently curving row that looked a bit like spring trees about to burst into leaf. For colors, we instructed the printer to use a soft green and a pastel yellow. What came back, in 4500 glorious copies, was a garish looking cover printed in an incandescent, biting yellow and a bilious shade of green. After that, Meg and I decided to invest in the official color chart used by printers and to stop relying on verbal instructions as to color. A few people (they may have been color blind) were kind enough to remark on the striking cover design of this issue.

After that, each new cover became a challenge for us. Meg and I were quite pleased with the Lincoln cover for the Fall 1981 issue, which she photographed at the Chicago Public Library's Cultural Center. It featured Charles Keck's remarkable sculpture of Lincoln as a young man, sitting on a stump with an open book in his lap. We set the photo inside a stylized outline map of Illinois. The effect, we felt, was quite striking, and it did give a strong message about the importance of reading in Illinois.

Other covers followed, issue after issue, as Meg Halsey and I got into the swing of production. If you've saved your issues, as I have, you can follow our developmental progress in cover design and graphic layouts. It was really a whole lot of fun trying to upgrade our skills and keeping within the self-imposed guidelines. We did a special cover for the year that Illinois hosted the Great Lakes Regional Reading Conference. We used the Chicago skyline, outer

space, and an imaginary sailing ship. All were somehow tied to an outline map of Illinois and tried to feature the theme of reading.

Without question, my personal favorite cover of the four years was on the Fall 1982 issue. It featured a photograph of the Bureau County "Farmer of the Year" reading a big book while sitting on his tractor surrounded by tall stalks of corn. We were delighted when Cheryl Hendress sent us this photograph, asking if we would like to use it for an *IRCJ* cover. We quickly agreed that it represented exactly the kind of material that would best exemplify the Illinois Reading Council's theme. After all, what could be more typical of Illinois than one of our state's best farmers taking a reading break from his hard work cultivating a corn field? The cover turned out quite well; we received many compliments about it and were generally very pleased. Then Cheryl Hendress dropped a little bombshell on our self-congratulations. It seems that she had had some difficulty persuading the literate corn producer to pose for the photo. Not until a copy of *Playboy* magazine was concealed in the pages of the big book would he sit for the photo. If you still have your copy of this issue of the *Illinois Reading Council Journal*, and if you look very closely at the book in the farmer's lap, you can just barely make out the outline of the inserted magazine.

"And there you have," as the commentator Paul Harvey says, "the rest of the story."

I guess all this just goes to show that you really can't judge a book (or the *Illinois Reading Council Journal*) by its cover. At any rate, I still consider it the best cover of the four years.

My years as editor of the *IRCJ* were a lot of fun, and I can only hope that succeeding editors have had and will continue to have as much pleasure out of the assignment as I did. Congratulations to the thousands of members of the Illinois Reading Council who have contributed to its 25 years of progress.

The *Journal*: 1984-1988
Evelyn Jackson

As I began to reminisce about my term as editor I was struck by how warm and pleasant the memories were. It's like recalling

childbirth—mercifully, the pain and anxiety recede from memory. While there are no agonizing moments to recount for you, there are some nice recollections to share.

Gene Cramer encouraged me to "make my mark" on the *Journal*. As he was turning over the files, he talked about how much fun he had making decisions about cover designs and colors. Because that didn't strike me as a fun job, I sought a standard cover design. Enter Evelyn Wilson, a graphic designer in the School of Medicine at Springfield. She created a cover design that also worked well on stationery and envelopes. It was the best money I spent as editor.

The Illinois Reading Council Hall of Fame feature article was a lot of fun. The timing of the establishment of the Hall of Fame by IRC made it a perfect opportunity to introduce something new to the *Journal*. Each Hall of Famer (Robert Hillerich, P. David Pearson, Delores Durkin, William Durr, Kathryn Ransom, David Rhoads, Dale Downs and Donna Ogle) whom I invited to contribute graciously responded with a very thoughtful piece. I enjoyed communicating with them and was pleased that each one was so conscientious about this project.

Working as an editor was a tremendous growth experience for me. My decision-making, writing, and organizational skills improved steadily over the course of the four years. I didn't expect the improvement in my own writing skills; however, it was very evident to me that reading as an editor made my writing better. Now that my courses involve students' writing, I have them engage in peer response activities to help them improve as writers.

Editing the journal was a very satisfying process. Lots of hard-working people (writers, assistant editors, reviewers, production staff) contributed to the development of a product which served as a lasting testimony to our efforts. As satisfying as all that was, I was very pleased to pass on the responsibility to Bobbi. Knowing that she would continue to improve on our product made it easy to let go.

The *Journal*: 1988-92
Roberta L. Berglund

It seems incredible to me that four years and 13 issues have slipped by since I assumed the position of editor of the *IRCJ*. The memories of my term are rich and full of the many wonderful people with whom I had the privilege of working during my tenure. When I accepted the job, previous editors graciously offered to help me learn my new role. Evelyn Jackson, my immediate predecessor, encouraged the continued development of the columns. Gene Cramer suggested that I put my "mark" on the journal. Jerry Johns conceptualized the pull-out feature, a 4-page yellow insert in the center of the journal, designed to be removed, duplicated and used for staff development and parent involvement activities. It turned out to be one of the most popular regular features added to the journal; the fact that it came to be known, to my dismay, as the "centerfold," served only to enhance its popularity with the readership. The many positive responses regarding Don Richgels' contribution "Understanding and Supporting Children's Invented Spelling," (Vol. 17, No. 1) was an early validation of the value of the pull-out section to our audience.

As editor, I established several goals for the *Journal*, among them: to vary the cover designs, to increase the journal's circulation and frequency of publication, to broaden the scope of and establish regularity to the columns, to occasionally develop themed issues, and finally, to produce an error-free periodical. All of the goals were attained, with the exception of the last. Gremlins in the forms of typos, omitted periods, misplaced page numbers, and the like managed to creep into many issues even though each was carefully scanned numerous times before going to press. Whenever a box of freshly-printed journals arrived, I would sometimes wait several days before peeking beyond the covers, fearing that I would be greeted by the ever-elusive error. My fears were often realized.

A journal editor works with many people in the course of producing a publication, probably none more closely than with the typesetter. When I became editor, I was a member of the faculty at the University of Wisconsin-Whitewater and spent my weekends at home in Dixon, Illinois. Since my work for the journal was done at my Illinois home, it was necessary to find a typesetter who would

work with me at odd hours and on weekends. A neighbor operated a small print shop in his home and his wife, known for her careful and accurate work as a typesetter, agreed to help me with the *Journal*. It was through my association with her that my memories as editor of the *IRCJ* are inexorably linked to cats.

The typesetter and her husband acquired their first cat at approximately the same time I began my association with them. They fed a stray feline that appeared at their patio door and, in a short time, the cat rewarded their generosity by presenting them with several kittens, all of which they kept. In a short space of time, the kittens grew to rotund adulthood and additional cats appeared at the door, were fed, and subsequently joined the feline family in the print shop. It soon became clear that the typesetter and her husband could not refuse a hungry, furry face. It also became more and more challenging to work on the journal in the presence of eight cats who gleefully chased pencils and played tag across the pristine pages of the camera-ready copy. More than one author received an article to proofread accompanied by a letter containing my apologies for the footprints and occasional fur clinging to the manuscript's pages. In spite of the friendly, furry "help," the typesetter and I worked diligently together and never missed a publication deadline in the four years of my editorship.

NEW EDITORS ENVISION THE FUTURE

Future Challenges for *IRCJ*
Peter Fisher & Barbara Johnson

"Was that the turn?" We rushed past another turn and sped by fields stretching to the horizon on the right and the left. It was 2:15 p.m. in the farmland of Illinois, and we were on our way to be interviewed for the editorship of the *Illinois Reading Council Journal* at 2:30 p.m.

"We must have missed it."

"She said five miles from the crossroads. It's still only three." We sped on. Not a soul in sight. Four miles. Five miles. Six miles. Still no turn.

"We'll have to ask someone!"

"Who? There's no one around."

A few more miles, and then...a trailer park. Dogs rushed barking to welcome an unfamiliar car. As we halted, a man in a plaid shirt spat in the dirt and walked to meet us. "Five miles back that way, and then turn right," he directed.

Foot to the accelerator, we charged off once more. Three miles, four, five, make the turn, down a mile, turn left. It was 2:29 p.m. and we'd made it in time!

This was our beginning as editors of the journal, and, in some ways, it typifies what we expect will happen in the next few years. We know where we want to go and we expect to get there (hopefully on time). On the way, we may make some unexpected turns, have to rush to meet deadlines, and meet some interesting people! We hope it will be fun, and that our readers enjoy where we take the journal. Changes are being considered in the format. One is a change to a larger size. In addition, the Publications Committee of the IRC is considering a title change. But these are visual changes. We have also changed the way the journal is produced and the thrust of the content.

For the first time the journal is being produced by a team of editors. IRC chose us as editors along with five assistant editors who are, or were, doctoral students at National-Louis University and practitioners in the field. They come with much expertise in classroom practice including multi-cultural education, ESL, school leadership, curriculum development, teacher preparation, and literature-based instruction. We all introduced ourselves in our first issue, so we will not be repetitive. This choice of an editorial team brings the advantages of multiple perspectives, pooled expertise, and a dispersion of the workload!

Our choice of assistant editors reflects two important challenges that face education in the immediate future which we regard as ones the journal is primarily addressing. They are teacher improvement and student diversity. While everyone in education is talking about these issues, we hope to explore them through the journal in ways

most relevant to Illinois. We think of the journal as a teacher's journal first and foremost. We plan to emphasize articles and columns that relate to teacher practice and encourage authorship by practitioners. Part of this, we hope, will result in an emphasis on action research.

The second component is a celebration of diversity. Illinois contains the third largest metropolitan area in the United States. The issues raised by urban education, and the increasing ethnic diversity in all our schools, should not be ignored. We hope to incorporate articles and columns that address issues of instruction in all types of schools and classrooms, and that allow us to explore new and exciting changes in curriculum and instruction for all populations.

If we are around for the fiftieth anniversary issue, we hope to read this and say we reached our goals. We know we are in for an exciting and challenging journey, and we also know we have made a good start.

George Thurston and his wife, Mary Jane, both former teachers, now live in Bradenton, Florida where they donate four days each week to community service. One day is spent at an elementary school and another at an assisted living facility for ambulatory and wheelchair patients. Two days are contributed to a large local hospital where Mary Jane works in a day care center for the children of hospital employees, and George serves as librarian for the 500 books, 1000 videotapes, and large periodical collection circulated to administrators, teachers, and student nurses.

Jerry L. Johns, a past president of the Illinois Reading Council, is Faculty Chair of reading and a Presidential Teaching Professor at Northern Illinois University. He is currently serving on the Board of Directors for the International Reading Association.

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Peter Fisher and **Barbara Johnson** are on the faculty at National-Louis University where they both teach graduate classes in literacy education. Fisher is Director of the Reading Center. Johnson is Director of the Doctoral Program.

Twenty-Two Years Since Charles Read's "Preschool Children's Knowledge of English Phonology": What Inventive Spellers Have Taught Us

Donald J. Richgels

I would like to use the occasion of the twenty-fifth anniversary of IRC to call attention to the fact that nearly the same number of years have passed since the publication of Charles Read's (1971) ground-breaking study of young children's invented spelling. In those years we have seen the birth and growth of the whole language movement (e.g., Blake, 1990; Goodman, 1986), and we have witnessed the definition and proliferation of two major areas of literacy study, emergent literacy (e.g., Strickland & Morrow, 1989; Teale & Sulzby, 1986) and the reading-writing connection (e.g., Shanahan, 1990; Tierney & Pearson, 1983).

Of course, Read was not solely—nor even probably directly—responsible for these developments, but his work is worth revisiting because it reminds us of three tenets upon which these developments are based: 1) that the foundation of children's literacy acquisition is what they already know about language, 2) that writing development is inseparable from reading development, and 3) that the role of adults in children's literacy acquisition involves a complex social interaction that has much more in common with what parents do during children's spoken language acquisition than with what teachers have come to call "direct instruction." I will use selected invented spelling studies, beginning with Read (1971), to trace the importance of these tenets during the past two decades and to point to instructional implications for today's classrooms.

What Children Already Know

Read is not a reading researcher; he is a linguist. His 1971 study was titled "Preschool Children's Knowledge of English Phonology." He was interested in what young children know about the sound system of their language in order to be able to speak and understand speech. Spelling was the vehicle Read used to get children to make their usually unconscious linguistic knowledge

visible. If you do not think your phonological knowledge is usually unconscious, try writing out the rules you operate from when you pronounce some English plural noun endings like an S (e.g., bricks), some like a Z (e.g., bugs), and some like UZ (e.g., birches). We all do that effortlessly, but only a very few of us can write out the rules for how to do it.

In the usually overlooked conclusion to his article, Read made the very important observations that literacy learning must be a matter of building on this knowledge and that literacy instruction cannot simply be a matter of inducing habits to respond to stimuli in conventional ways:

> We can no longer assume that a child must approach reading and writing as an untrained animal approaches a maze—with no discernible prior conception of its structure. . . . Evidently, a child may come to school with a knowledge of some phonological categories and relations; . . . [H]ow can reading instruction build on this relationship, while encouraging children to *extend and deepen* [italics added] their notion of the sound system of the language? . . . For at least some children, to learn standard spelling is to learn to *broaden and deepen* [italics added] their pre-school phonological analysis . . . . In the meantime, we must assume that learning to read and write are matters of knowledge rather than habit. (pp. 32-34)

I emphasize the words "extend," "broaden," and "deepen" because they embody the emergent literacy and whole language emphasis on the child as his/her own resource rather than as an empty vessel into which teachers must pour knowledge. Here we see that as long ago as 1971, Charles Read concluded that children can broaden and deepen their existing language knowledge in the process of learning to read and write without having to endure old fashioned, habit-building, stimulus-response teaching techniques.

I think this is especially important nowadays with the current emphasis on phonemic awareness (e.g., Adams, 1990; Griffith & Olson, 1992). We must avoid the popular misconception that attending to anything "phonemic" or "phonological" implies an

endorsement of "phonics" as traditionally defined and traditionally taught.

Self-Initiated Practice

This rejection of instruction as mere habit building does not, however, imply a rejection of practice, a time-honored component of learning. Carol Chomsky (1971), the first writer to popularize Read's findings, certainly did not avoid this issue:

> Practice in attending to sounds with guidance from a teacher who is aware of these separate abilities will be enormously helpful to the child. (p. 503) . . . Most important is that children come to trust their own linguistic perceptions, understand that they have a viable means for expressing them, and get plenty of practice in doing so. (p. 513)

It is important, however, to recognize what kind of practice this is; it is self-initiated practice, the sort that you and I—and everyone since humans began trying to acquire new abilities—engage in. Clay (1979) emphasized the same distinction when she wrote about children's self-initiated copying: "When the copying task is set by the teacher it might be a boring activity, which can lead to serious deterioration . . . . Yet as a self-initiated process repetition can provide a wonderful sense of accomplishment" (p. 21). It is also important to recognize that Chomsky (1971) is writing about a teacher who is aware of children's abilities (no small task!) and that elsewhere she describes the teacher as one who gives access to spelling rather than requiring spelling (p. 505) and one who provides help when asked (p. 510).

Sensible Input

Ehri and her colleagues (Ehri & Wilce, 1985; Scott & Ehri, 1990) have investigated the role of emerging knowledge of the alphabetic principle in the word reading of young children. They have discussed the relationship between that knowledge and developing spelling ability. They have given valuable suggestions about what sort of guidance works best for beginning writers and readers. They have demonstrated that only partial alphabetic

analysis of words is necessary to begin to read and that input in the form of phonetically regular words—or what they call "sensible spellings"—may be helpful to beginning readers.

Ehri and Wilce (1985) asked "whether, when children first begin reading words, their exposure should be limited to words whose spellings 'make sense' in terms of their letter knowledge" (p. 177). Scott and Ehri (1990) concluded, "Teaching beginners to read phonetically sensible spellings when they first move into reading not only makes word reading easier for them but also enables them to use what they know about letters to begin making sense of the spelling system" (p. 164).

This sounds like good advice. After all, children strive to make sense of print, just as they strive to make sense of the rest of their experiences. Children do sometimes focus on individual words, and for some children such focusing amounts to self-initiated practice in applying the alphabetic principle with its sound-letter correspondences. When this is the case, it makes sense for adults to guide children toward input with which they will find success. I have suggested ways of doing this, including using inventively spelled words (McGee & Richgels, 1990; Richgels, 1987).

I do not interpret Ehri and Wilce's (1985) reference to limiting children's exposure to words as an endorsement of controlled vocabulary methods of reading instruction. Their subjects were attending to individual words, not to larger texts or to environmental print. In larger texts and with environmental print, of course, there are other cues to assist even the most novice readers, so that it is not necessary to limit instructional materials to texts with controlled vocabularies.

Much has been made over the years about inventive spellers not always being able to read their own spellings. I think that too much has been made of it. With appropriate guidance, children can often read their own spellings. This makes sense when one considers that invented spellings are usually phonetically regular or sensible spellings, the sort of spellings that Ehri and her colleagues recommend. "Appropriate guidance" must especially include asked for guidance and guidance that is provided by someone who was present when the spellings were invented, that is, during the talking and drawing and

writing that are usually part of the composing process for beginning writers (Calkins, 1986; Dyson, 1985).

Writing and Reading Together

After Read, Glenda Bissex (1980) is perhaps the most widely known contributor to invented spelling research. Her book about her son Paul, subtitled "A Child Learns to Write and Read," documented in detail what Read had speculated about, that learning to write and learning to read necessarily support one another from the very start.

For example, within two months of Paul's writing RUDF for "Are you deaf?", his mother noted his reading "I'm" in books as "I am" and his correcting her when she did not read that contraction the same as he did (Bissex, 1980, p. 21). At the same age that Paul displayed sophisticated phonemic awareness in his spelling of "out of order" as "AOT AV ORDR," he displayed the same awareness in his reading by saying about the word "rox," "If it was a b instead of an r, it would be 'box'" (p. 122).

Unnoticed Aspect

Paul's achievements illustrate one of the most fascinating occurrences in children's emerging literacy; that is, the simultaneous display in both writing and reading of what Read would call extended and deepened awareness of how language sounds work. This simultaneous display deserves our attention. Unfortunately, for most of the last twenty years, it has remained the great unnoticed aspect of children's invented spelling development. One person who has noticed it is Marilyn Adams, but as I have warned elsewhere (Richgels & McGee, 1990), her noticing it has itself gone unnoticed in the heat of the controversy surrounding her book. Adams (1990) wrote:

> [T]he process of inventing spelling is essentially a process of phonics. Not surprisingly, then, the phonetic appropriateness of prereaders' invented spellings is found to be predicted by their level of phonemic awareness and to predict their later success in learning to read words. . . . The evidence that invented spelling activity simultaneously

> develops phonemic awareness and promotes understanding of the alphabetic principle is extremely promising, especially in view of the difficulty with which children are found to acquire these insights through other methods of teaching. (p. 387)

Additional Examples

I will now share some additional examples of this simultaneous display of phonological knowledge in both writing and reading. The first two are from a study of my daughter Carrie's early writing and reading (Richgels & McGee, 1989). In the same month (age 5:5) that included some of Carrie's first invented spellings (e.g., PZN for "poison" and DNR for "danger"), she read "No" on a sign and "LIFE" on the cover of *Life* magazine but wanted to know why there was an E at the end of *LIFE*. In the same month (age 5:8) that she wrote CLR5 for "Carrie Ellen Richgels, age 5," she read "Photos Now" on a store front as "Post Office." When told that the sign really said "Photos Now," she expressed confusion—because "that should have an F."

The remaining examples are from a current project with kindergarten children. The project includes my asking the children to read the first-grade word list from the letter-word identification subtest of the Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery; to read phonetically regular words (e.g., PNO for "piano" and NRS for "nurse"); and to spell the words "nose," "feet," "table," "pie," "bird," "nest," "bridge," "sock," "drum," and "wagon." As with Paul and Carrie, there are parallels between children's using (or not using) letter-sound knowledge in reading and their doing so (or not doing so) in their writing.

Sam is a nonspeller. He spelled the ten words with random strings of letters. His few reading attempts were based on incomplete use of available cues: "green" for GOT, "no" for PNO, "yes" for BH (which followed PNO), "dad" for NDN, "bee" for BK, and "jam" for JKT.

Sarah is a confident, capable phonetic speller. She told me, "I know how!" Her ten spellings were NOS, FET, TABOL, PI, BRD, NAST, BRIS, SIK, DRAM, WAGIN. When I warned that some

words would be difficult to read, she said, "I can sound them out." She worked hard at a pronunciation of both the Woodcock-Johnson words and the phonetically regular words. For example, she read HAD, HIS, KEEP, and MUST correctly, and among her other readings were "goat" for GOT, "pay-rt" for PART, "pin" for PNO, "limbo" for LBO, "nerds" for NRS, and "picture" for PKJ.

David is also a phonetic speller, but his strategies are less developed than Sarah's. His ten spellings were NOS, FET, TBL, PIY, BED, NEST, BEJ, SEK, JEM, WEGN (note his use of E as an all-purpose vowel). He was quick to say, "I don't know" about the Woodcock-Johnson words. With the phonetically regular words, however, he took considerable time studying them and sounding them out. This sometimes led to his giving a reading (e.g., "tum" for TM, "book" for BK, "tumb" for TB) and sometimes concluding, "I don't know."

Robert is a conventional speller (he spelled every word conventionally except "bridge" which he spelled BRIDE) and an accomplished word reader. No longer feeling his way with the alphabetic principle, he does not rely on the sounding out strategies of David and Sarah. While he read every word from the Woodcock-Johnson list correctly, he did not see the phonetically regular words as words (such spellings were not a help to him because the sounding out process that is simplified with those spellings was irrelevant to him). He interpreted the task for those words as one of letter identification (e.g., he said "P-N-O" for PNO).

Instructional Implications

Twenty-two years ago, Charles Read (1971) recommended that teachers "at least respect [children's pre-conventional spelling system] and attempt to work with it" (p. 33). I would elaborate on that still very good advice with these suggestions:

- Observe children. Children will reveal which aspects of the reading-writing process they are working out at a given time and even how they are inclined to proceed. Respectful teachers take time to watch and listen in order to know at what point and with what strategies to work with children.

- Talk *with* children. Talking is an integral part of beginning writers' composition processes. Working with young writers entails talking with them. That means listening and giving feedback that reflects the thinking the child has revealed about a writing topic or about writing processes.
- Answer children's questions. It seems the most natural thing to do, but we sometimes withhold answers—in the usually mistaken belief that giving answers makes it too easy for the child. To the child, asked-for feedback is the most important feedback.
- Treat writing and reading similarly. Literacy is an equal-opportunity process. Writing centers, writing times, and writing models are as important as library centers, reading times, and reading models. Children need lots of both.
- Provide sensible writing tasks. This means that writing must be functional; it must help children to accomplish their own goals. Writing instruction must be opportunistic, that is, arising from the tasks and challenges at hand (this is where self-initiated practice with attendant teacher observation and teacher talk comes into play). Finally, it is important to recognize that some sensible, self-initiated writing tasks will be at the word level.

Of course, this is all easier to say than to do. However, teachers have had nearly twenty-five years of practice. The results in young children's increased confidence and competence as writers and readers are incentive enough for continuing to respect and work with what children know about spoken and written language processes.

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Standardized Reading Tests: Then and Now

Peggy VanLeirsburg

A central focus for the past several years has been the educational achievement of students in the United States. The public is concerned about the decline in achievement test scores, notably during the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s (Congressional Budget Office [CBO], 1987). Standardized reading test scores have played an important role in this concern. Corporate employers and legislators have decried the widespread illiteracy in this country (Farr, Tuinman, & Rowls, 1974). Such a charge is not a trivial matter: the implication is that the teaching of reading in America is not meeting the primary goals of society. Educational initiatives, such as stiffer high school graduation requirements, were intended to counter these trends. Many programs and initiatives have increased the testing of both teachers and students, not only to measure achievement but to improve it. A great deal of importance is attached to standardized test scores.

Standardized testing has not always existed with the emphasis and intensity it does today. It was the purpose of this study to trace the historical foundations of standardized reading tests in elementary schools in the United States as shaped by societal influences. As popular opinion has shaped education in society, it has influenced the assessment of its students.

A written account of the development of standardized reading tests in the elementary school helps one to understand past and present trends. The trends and research were organized chronologically and grouped into three major time periods. The first includes events from the beginning of the 20th century until approximately 1929; the second from 1930 to 1965; and the third time period includes events from the mid-1960s through 1991.

Pervasiveness

Since its birth in 1915, the movement to test reading ability has grown in importance and pervasiveness. The testing movement has become a business that is relied on to offer quantitative information,

suggesting accountability and instructional usefulness. An enormous amount of testing occurs in schools (Tierney, Carter, & Desai, 1991).

> Rough estimates suggest that a large percentage of children in this country receive more than 2,000 test items each year—including items on standardized tests, basal tests, and teacher-made tests. Furthermore, surveys of teachers suggest that an average of fourteen hours are spent over the course of a year preparing students for standardized tests. (p. 22)

Typically, students may spend two to six hours each year taking tests throughout their elementary and high school years; special education students may experience two to three times more testing. Tests which accompany textbooks, local instructional tests, and teacher-made tests are not included in this estimate (Wigdor & Garner, 1982).

Reading is one of the most frequently measured academic abilities (Smith, 1986). Published reading tests include measures of pre-school children through adults, as well as those subtests of reading included in achievement test batteries. The publication of standardized reading tests and achievement test batteries with reading subtests for elementary students is reported in the Table. The data are arranged by decade and do not include test revisions. Data were compiled from the following sources: Volumes 1 through 10 of *The Mental Measurements Yearbooks* (Buros, 1938, 1940, 1949, 1953, 1959, 1965, 1972, 1978; Conoley & Kramer, 1989; Mitchell, 1985), Volumes 1 through 3 of *Tests in Print* (Buros, 1961, 1974; Mitchell, 1983), and Volumes 1 and 2 of *Reading Tests and Reviews* (Buros, 1968, 1975).

The Past

Assessment in reading is not a value-neutral enterprise; it reflects the values and ideology apparent in societal and cultural standards of the time (Archbald & Newmann, 1988). Historical events provide a frame of reference for assessment trends as researchers and practitioners respond to the critical socio-educational demands of our society.

Table. Standardized Reading Tests and Achievement Test Batteries for Elementary Students Published in the United States by Decade

Decade	Number	Cumulative Number	Number Out of Print	Cumulative Number Out of Print
1910-1919	5	5	3	3
1920-1929	21	26	10	13
1930-1939	33	59	15	28
1940-1949	12	71	2	30
1950-1959	21	92	4	34
1960-1969	28	120	0	34
1970-1979	20	140	0	34
1980-1989	8	148	0	34

1900-1929

The demand for tests arose during a period when school became compulsory (Glaser, 1981). The population of public schools rose from 18 million in 1910 to around 25 million in 1930 as a result of mandatory attendance laws, the incorporation of kindergarten, and child labor laws (Rippa, 1988). The range of abilities and cultural diversity of students presented new challenges to educators and the public school system. Testing to predict which students would benefit from specialized instruction, vocational programming, or college preparation was seen as part of the solution (Glaser, 1981).

The task of dealing with diversity was handled in the context of the social climate, educational philosophy, and the emerging psychometric technology of the time. Around the beginning of the 20th century, the social climate in the United States was changing. Large numbers of immigrants—over one million in 1905 alone—poured into the country. Poverty and illiteracy of the blended population were dealt with out of concern for improving the quality of life.

Settlement houses, such as Hull House in Chicago, sought to improve conditions through education. Their goal was to feed, clothe, shelter, and educate. By 1918, each state had passed compulsory education laws (Rippa, 1988).

The problems of immigrants served to focus social awareness on the inequity of opportunity for other groups as well. The rights of women to be educated and to vote were recognized as the hard-fought struggle resulting in the adoption of the 19th Amendment to the Constitution (U.S. Congress, 1920). The Civil War technically abolished slavery and many facilities were "separate but equal." To some minds, separate facilities in education did not necessarily mean equal. The social climate of the early 1900s was influenced by reformers and progressive educators who recognized that opportunities were not equal.

The philosophy of the progressive educators, exemplified by John Dewey, held that schools should give more emphasis to the child. The interests of the individual student should be considered in curriculum and planning while teachers facilitated the learning process.

A second philosophical tenet held that educational innovations must be tested in a scientific manner. Thorndike (1918) furthered this notion, underscoring the beginning of educational testing, by writing, "Whatever exists at all exists in some amount" (p. 16). Quantifying educational abilities was an outgrowth of the 1905-1908 measurement breakthrough by Binet and Simon (1905) who developed an intelligence test and created a scale with corresponding norms (Cremin, 1964). By 1918, over 100 standardized tests for various areas of achievement had been designed.

Standardized testing gained impetus when the United States government commissioned Yerkes to construct group intelligence tests for Army recruits of World War I. The result was the Army Alpha Scale for those draftees who could read, and the Beta Scale for those who could not. The testing found 46,347 of the 1,588,904 men examined to have a mental age under 10 (Yerkes, 1921). Such tests provided "scientific" evidence, to some minds, that the products of American society and its schools did not possess a high degree of intelligence. Not all researchers jumped on the testing bandwagon.

Lippmann (1922, 1923) reminded the public that the Alpha and Beta tests were not designed to measure intelligence, but rather identify those individuals who showed capabilities to be officers and those who did not. The controversy over standardized testing had begun.

The emergent psychometric technology was reflected by a change in methods of teaching reading in the early 1900s. Reading instruction had utilized oral methods until about 1910, when silent reading procedures were emphasized. In 1908, Huey published his widely quoted *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading* (Huey, 1908/1968) in which he discussed his studies involving perceptual aspects of reading and explained a need for meaningful education. Huey's ideas, along with those of Dewey, provided an impetus for silent reading instruction. The increased school population contributed to the growth of silent reading at a time when American society required a faster means of reading to keep current and meet the practical needs of life.

Reading was the last academic subject to yield to the testing movement (Smith, 1986). In 1915, W. S. Gray, a student of Thorndike, published the first standardized reading test, the Gray Standardized Oral Reading Paragraphs. Gray's work showed that a test of oral reading was cumbersome and inefficient to administer and score in a group setting. Further, reading was a complex task to measure. Following the work of Gray, other reading tests (e.g., Brown, 1914; Kelly, 1916; Courtis, 1917; and Monroe, 1918) were published that required silent reading. The original group reading tests shared commonalities. They required the student to read silently, supply a short answer, make one choice from supplied multiple choices, or retell a story to measure comprehension. Tests were usually timed; speed of reading was a desired goal.

In a 1921 study, Gates compared 12 reading tests and found statistical evidence of reliability lacking. He further concluded that, in reading, there is not a group of functions bound by some general function. Gates (1927) was responsible for constructing silent reading tests with particular attention to validity and reliability. The Gates Silent Reading Test was based on the assumption that several reading activities exist, some of which are distinctive enough to be measured. Gates showed concern for developing and improving statistical standardization of reading tests. Wyman and Wendle

(1921) investigated the issue of whether so-called reading tests actually measured reading ability or general intelligence. This issue has continued to plague researchers throughout the 20th century.

In summary, statistical methods applied to education, an instructional focus on silent reading, and a rapidly increasing public school population promoted the growth of standardized reading tests.

1930-1965

Three main social and cultural forces influenced standardized reading testing from 1930 to 1965. The first was the Depression and the collapse of the stock market in 1929. The nation's economy suffered and fewer dollars were available for schools and educational research. Federal funds were directed toward public programs combining work and education. Economic survival was the focus of the 1930s. As a result, improvements in instruction and advancements in standardized testing were not the focus of federal funds.

World War II and the ensuing effort to establish the United States as an international leader was a second social and cultural force. Federal funds were needed to support the war effort and were not channeled into education and research. However, the desire for improvement in education was strong, resulting in the business community funding a number of specialized programs in the schools.

The third major social and cultural factor was the rapid growth of communications and technology. New forms of communication made it possible for the public to gain information rapidly through radio and television. Written communication increased as the circulation of newspapers and magazines spread, requiring citizens to interpret an increasing body of new information. The development of the IBM 805 scanner in 1935 secured the place of objective, multiple-choice tests by reducing the cost of scoring to one-tenth that of hand-scoring (Pearson & Dunning, 1985).

Instruction in reading changed little during the years 1930 to 1965, except for the significant addition of reading enjoyment as a national goal. Two methods of instruction were apparent. One method was strongly skills-oriented, represented by educators who felt reading skills should be taught sequentially. The other method

was activity-based, reflected by educators who felt that guided inquiry using the natural curiosity of the student was effective.

Schools began to provide programs for students with reading disabilities. Reading clinics, remedial services, and diagnostic testing increased. In studying diagnostic reading tests, Davis (1944) listed nine skills common to standardized tests of the time. He determined word knowledge and the ability to infer meanings accounted for 89% of the variance and judged these factors to be the most important in the measurement of reading (Davis, 1949). Gates (1945) specified additional diagnostic information to be collected when considering reading deficiency: vision and hearing screening, eye movements, emotional tension, fear, lack of confidence, special interests, school history, and the influence of out-of-school factors.

Reading readiness gained acceptance and standardized tests were developed to measure basic traits considered predictive of success in reading. These factors included auditory and visual discrimination, word meaning, visual-motor skills, and letter-name knowledge. The correlation between most readiness tests, such as the Metropolitan Readiness Test, and reading achievement at the end of first grade, was between .50 and .70 (Harris & Sipay, 1985).

Traxler (1958) and others questioned the construction of reading tests, noting that reading was a process: a complex, unified act, with no sharp skill differentiation. Although the protests were heard, no significant changes were made in standardized reading tests. Tests generally measured two components, vocabulary and comprehension, in a multiple-choice format suitable for machine-scoring. Zahner (1940) wrote that the measurement of comprehension did not fit well with a fixed response type of question and that different types of items should be constructed by test-makers. His advice went largely unheeded.

Criticism of standardized reading tests continued during the time period 1930 to 1965. However, reliance on these tests for the measurement of reading skills became apparent in the school setting. Tests were used to diagnose disability, predict success, place students in special programs, and demonstrate instructional effectiveness.

1966-1991

Standardized testing became firmly entrenched in the educational system of the United States during the period from 1966 to 1991. Federal legislation and judicial decisions contributed to the pervasiveness of testing. Equality of opportunity for individuals in a diverse society was the ideal supported by legal action. In his State of the Union address, President Lyndon B. Johnson declared war on poverty with education playing a major role (Cremin, 1988). Congress responded by passing an unprecedented record of legislation for education (Rippa, 1988). The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (U. S. Congress, 1965) allocated $1.3 billion to public schools and nonpublic students. Head Start was introduced in the summer of 1965 with the intent of providing activities for pre-school children of poverty-level homes (Cremin, 1988). A new cabinet-level Department of Education was established in 1979. Federal funding supported the notion that education was vital to American society.

Another focus of federal influence was social reform. The *Brown* decision in 1954 reversed the "separate but equal doctrine," accepted since 1896 (*Plessy v. Ferguson, 1896*), and became the foundation for civil rights opportunities in society and education (*Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka et al.*, 1954). The Civil Rights Act (U.S. Congress, 1964a) aided in the prevention of discrimination in employment and accommodations. The 24th Amendment to the Constitution (U.S. Congress, 1964b) abolished the poll tax in an attempt to encourage voting by all citizens (Rippa, 1988). Desegregation was dealt with in the form of the Supreme Court's support of busing in *Swann v. Charlotte-Mecklenburg Board of Education* in 1971, 17 years after the Brown decision.

Judicial decisions had a direct impact on the schools, rendering it illegal for schools to deny an education to any student. *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* (1972) and *Mills v. Board of Education* (1972) set a precedent by requiring school districts to provide an appropriate education to children with physical, mental, and emotional handicaps, no matter how severe. The *PARC* and *Mills* decisions were reaffirmed in 1975 when Public Law 94-142 was signed by President Gerald Ford. Public school systems were required to provide free educational services and extensive standardized testing to qualify or

disqualify exceptional children ages 3 to 21 in the least restrictive environment. In the 1976-77 school year, about 3.7 million students were served in federally supported special education programs; by 1987-88 the total was over 4.4 million students, or over 11% of the school population (Snyder, 1989).

The group of students served by special education programs represented a sizable number of standardized test scores, reading subtests and diagnostic measures included. The 11% served, nevertheless, did not reflect students who were referred for services and tested but found ineligible for services. In addition to testing required for special education services, other federally funded programs required standardized scores to qualify or eliminate students and to show accountability. Public Law 94-142 (U. S. Congress, 1975) mandated that tests and other evaluative procedures be culturally fair. Several judicial decisions supported this mandate, ensuring equal educational opportunities and appropriate classification for female, minority, and handicapped students.

Federal influence demanded data and accountability in the form of standardized test scores. The pervasiveness of testing in the educational setting and in society increased. Standardized tests of reading ability increased in number, but did not change in format or theoretical basis. The period from 1966 to 1991 featured reading tests built on the factor analysis studies of Davis in 1944. Test authors attempted to compile and measure a myriad of reading skills (Roser, 1984).

Criterion-referenced tests flooded the market during the 1960s and 1970s. They, too, were built on the premise that skills were additive in nature and once a set of skills was mastered, comprehension would result (Roser, 1984). In general, both norm-referenced and criterion-referenced reading tests measured vocabulary in isolation and comprehension of short passages using multiple-choice formats. This method of assessing reading was like that of the 1930s, with computers doing the scoring in a convenient, economical manner (Readence & Moore, 1983).

Some researchers, however, expressed concerns with the assessment of comprehension in this manner (Crowell, Au, & Blake, 1983; Curtis & Glaser, 1983; Flood, 1984; Kendall, 1980; Pearson &

Dunning, 1985). Readence and Moore (1983) stated, "After all, comprehension is an internal, unobservable phenomenon, and we can only gauge behaviors that reflect it" (p. 312). A growing realization resulted from research in reading. It became apparent that reading was a complex, interactive process specific to the reader, the text, and the situation. Extensive research and new approaches brought reading and literacy to the attention of the public. The demands placed on the schools to educate and care for all children had increased due to federal influence. Americans wondered if, in fact, the schools were doing their job. *Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading* was published in 1985 in an effort to answer these concerns (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985). The Commission recommended that schools introduce more comprehensive assessments of reading and writing. Tests should reflect what is known about the reading process. A mismatch of reading theory and standardized reading testing was apparent.

Federal influence extended to the development of a national test, the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) in 1983. The purpose of NAEP was to sample educational progress in several different subject areas. The reading portion of the test began as a measure to reflect current theory and reading objectives in a dynamic format. NAEP had begun to offer comparative data in an attempt to chart change in the reading ability of students at ages 9, 13, and 17. Test scores, however flawed, have given us information which may be useful in directing instructional need and federal dollars.

The Past: Summary and Conclusions

Significant socio-cultural events in the history of the United States that had an influence on the growth and development of standardized reading testing in the elementary school have been presented. The evidence suggests that reading tests have not changed significantly in the past 70 years. There have been advances in statistical sophistication relative to reliability and validity. Farr and Carey (1986) credit the invention, development, and extensive use of test scoring machines and computer summaries of test information with the radical change in speed with which test results are determined. However, with the exception of changes in some

readiness tests to reflect current knowledge about the literacy development of pre-school children, tests look similar to those developed during the 1920s.

The dominant form for assessing comprehension is the short passage followed by multiple-choice questions. Vocabulary or word recognition sections on both norm- and criterion-referenced tests are characterized by a word or word in a phrase followed by multiple-choice responses. There has been little change in the actual format or structure of standardized reading tests (Farr & Carey, 1986).

The Present

Tests are administered to millions of elementary children each year and reading is probably the most frequently tested behavior (Farr & Carey, 1986). The importance of reading is reflected in the importance of reading in testing. National progress examinations, state competency tests, achievement batteries, and special education program requirements include a test of reading.

Yet, there is a growing dichotomy between recent advances in understanding the reading process and the tests used to measure reading achievement. Valencia and Pearson (1987) sum up the discrepancy between what is known and what is measured:

> Reading assessment has not kept pace with the advances in reading theory, research, or practice. On the one hand, we argue vehemently for richer and more liberating instructional materials and practices—practices that help students become more sophisticated readers. . . .On the other hand, we stand idly by and observe yet another round of standardized or end-of-unit basal tests. (p. 726)

The notion of mastery learning, prevalent in the 1960s, helped foster the relationship between instruction and testing. Reading curriculum has been framed by the logic that reading is taught by a series of small, separate enabling skills and that skilled reading is an aggregation of all these skills (Valencia & Pearson, 1987). Test makers had a fairly easy job matching this scope and sequence approach with test items. However, recent research suggests that at all levels of sophistication from kindergarten through high school,

readers use available knowledge (e.g., text, prior knowledge, and environmental clues) to make sense of text. Reading is seen as an active integration of these strategies (Valencia & Pearson, 1987). Test makers have a more difficult time assessing such a process. Even as new assessments are written, the public and the schools may not easily surrender their current reverence for, and dependence upon, standardized test scores.

In May 1990 the National Commission on Testing and Public Policy released a highly critical study of standardized, multiple-choice tests suggesting that they should be prohibited at all elementary schools (Henry, 1990). The study further found that mandatory testing consumes an enormous amount of school days and the equivalent of $700 million to $900 million in direct and indirect expenditures annually. From 1972 to 1985, the number of state standardized testing programs grew from 1 to 34. Now, each state in the nation has a mandated testing program (Henry, 1990).

State Assessment

The need for change in reading assessment is felt at the national, state, and local levels. Teams of reading researchers have been working with personnel from the Illinois State Board of Education and the Michigan Department of Education to develop assessments that reflect current reading theory (Valencia & Pearson, 1986; Wixson, Peters, Weber, & Roeber, 1987). Illinois and Michigan are among the forerunners developing and investigating new types of reading assessment, although other states have begun to match assessment with instruction. The new focus is on larger concepts and curriculum strands, emphasizing the process of constructing meaning. This marks a clear departure from state goals of the 1970's in which the reading process was narrowly defined, fragmenting and trivializing the reading process (Valencia, Pearson, Peters, & Wixson, 1989).

Alternative Assessments

Innovative forms of reading assessment have experienced peaks of popularity throughout the last 50 years. However, their data usually do not result in a solid, numerical, norm-based score and may not be the measurement of choice in large-scale testing situations.

Informal reading inventories (IRIs), which yield a reading level of frustration, instructional, or independent, have been available for some time (Betts, 1954). Oral reading miscues yield instructional information for the teacher. However, IRIs are time-consuming to administer. Little research into the validity and reliability of the IRIs has been reported (Farr & Carey, 1986).

The Reading Miscue Inventory (RMI) (Goodman & Burke, 1972) is an individually administered instrument that provides a detailed analysis of oral reading. The RMI is a complex test that takes a great deal of time to administer, score, and interpret. The use of the RMI may be more appropriate for clinical evaluation.

The cloze procedure, which requires the reader to supply words that have been deleted from a passage, was developed by Ebbinghaus in 1897. The technique gained popularity with its introduction as a measure of readability by Taylor (1953) and was soon used as a measure of reading comprehension. Cloze procedures are less time consuming to administer and score than IRIs or RMIs and they can be given to groups. Warwick (1978) found the validity and reliability for children over age 8 quite impressive. However, an as yet unidentified minimum level of reading ability is necessary to employ the linguistic skills required by the cloze.

Portfolios are another form of alternative assessment. Portfolio assessment of literacy behaviors, including reading and writing, represents a collection of artifacts specific to the growth of an individual student. Valencia (1990) cites four guiding principles to serve as a rationale for the portfolio assessment of literacy development: authentic, ongoing, multidimensional, and collaborative between student and teacher. The current literature abounds with information on portfolio assessment (Glazer, Searfoss, & Gentile, 1988; Goodman, Goodman, & Hood, 1989; Heald-Taylor, 1989; VanLeirsburg, 1990; Wolf, 1989). However, Johns and VanLeirsburg (1990) found that although most educators agree with its theoretical basis as an assessment device, portfolios are not yet well understood by teachers or administrators.

Popham (Kirst, 1991) responds to the innovative forms of assessment:

> Now the pendulum seems to be swinging decisively away from specificity. We appear to be moving toward the assessment of more generalizable kinds of concepts and higher order thinking skills. There's less of a quest for clarity these days . . . .As a consequence, there's an emphasis on measuring more holistic kinds of outcomes. (p. 24)

Given the volume of current research in reading assessment, innovative assessment programs are not practiced extensively (Kirst, 1991).

The Future

Over the past several years, educators and the public alike have become aware and accepting of the importance of educational outcomes and high achievement standards (Stiggins, 1991). Academic success at the national, state, and personal level is equated with high standardized test scores. Virtually all states and local districts have a testing program in place which includes reading. News media publish the test results. Important instructional and policy decisions are based on student achievement. Students benefit if these decisions are based on sound data and an understanding of standardized measurement. Assessment literacy involves critical analysis of data and informed consumerism. Educators who are assessment literate do not accept data at mere face value and are not intimidated by apparently technical information (Stiggins, 1991).

In reviewing state and local testing guidelines, Brown (1989) found a devotion to and misunderstanding of standardized test scores. Nearly everyone surveyed determined academic progress on the basis of scores on commercial standardized norm-referenced tests. Most believed that commercial standardized tests were valid indicators of student and school achievement. In discussing thinking, creativity, and problem-solving programs, most policymakers believed that these activities cannot be measured (Brown, 1989).

Assessment literacy may spread slowly through educational circles, but even more slowly through public circles. Standardized reading tests have been a part of decision making for decades. Part of their charm results from their efficiency and quantified data.

Standardized reading tests have gained fame and acceptance and are used in ways that may have been unintentional. Howards (1987) cited deleterious and pervasive myths and illusions surrounding the testing movement: ". . . the illusion of precision, of comparability of persons, of expectations, of progress or its lack, of ranking, of prediction, of objectivity and truth" (p. 5).

The pervasive use of reading tests dictates their existence for some time to come, at least on the national and state levels. A current and future requirement is for further assessment literacy and the informed use of standardized reading devices. Informed use of tests is the key to ensuring test validity, since validity can only be "built in" to tests to a certain degree (Johnston, 1981). Invalidity lies in claims made regarding the scores as well as in the instrument itself. Johnston (1981) urges cautions and considerations be given when interpreting standardized reading tests.

Johnston's cautiousness underscores the notion that group standardized tests of reading are, at best, a gross measure more suitable for educated, global decisions. Individual and classroom instructional decisions must be based on knowledge of the diversity of processing at this personal level. Glaser (1981) urges flexible environments in school systems that would permit differential instructional practices coordinated with useful diagnostic assessment so that testing and teaching become integral events. Costa (1989) stresses a change in assessment to overcome the habit of using product-oriented assessment techniques to measure process-oriented education.

Recommendations

The keys to meeting the reading assessment needs of a diverse student population are a flexible approach to assessment and an improved knowledge base on the part of educators and the public (Garcia & Pearson, 1990). Costa (1989) confirmed the tenets of flexible assessment and improved knowledge base. He further outlined three requirements for the redesigning of assessment: (1) reestablish the school as the locus of accountability; (2) expand the range and variety of assessment techniques; and (3) systematize the variety of assessment procedures.

A first step in the development of a broader knowledge base of assessment is persuading educators to consider how current formal and informal assessment methods distort or reflect the literacy growth of diverse students. In order to foster literacy growth, educators need to know how students read, comprehend, and process both familiar and unfamiliar text, how they adjust their reading according to the purpose of the task or interest in the topic, and their attitudes toward reading authentic text in a noncontrived setting. In short, reading assessment needs to offer information that is useful to decision making for the instructional purposes and literacy growth of students at the national, state, and personal levels.

However, the socio-economic events that have developed in the United States since the early 1900s influenced a standardized testing legacy that will not be easily changed. It is unlikely that test publishers, educators, or the public will be satisfied with assessment measures that report anything but normed data in a single score. It is unlikely that the convenience of these tests can be matched; standardized tests are economical and can be administered to large groups in a relatively short time and scored quickly by computers that offer a wide variety of data profiles.

The improvements of large-scale assessment of reading have begun in some states, but are still under development and not generally accepted or understood by educators or the public. Hopefully, this innovative trend will continue and supplant the use of typical group standardized reading tests. While this trend gains impetus, the following recommendations are suggested for large-scale reading assessment.

1. Testing should not be administered without a specific purpose. Some districts administer the same achievement battery each spring because it has become tradition, not necessity. Instead, testing reflective of local curricula and diversity that will produce useful data for a specific reason is encouraged.

2. The amount of standardized testing of reading should be reduced. If one measure offers adequate information, a second test need not be given.

3. Knowledge about standardized tests should be improved and increased. Assessment literacy is encouraged at all levels. School districts and teacher-training programs need to reflect awareness of the fact that individuals at all levels, from principals to parents, may pretend to be knowledgeable about statistics that actually confuse them.

4. Standardized tests should be carefully chosen. The tests should reflect current knowledge about reading and reflect the curriculum in a given geographical area.

5. While some amount of large-scale testing may be necessary to report statistics for federal and state use, the most useful assessment information for instructional purposes occurs at a more personal level involving an individual or classroom.

Reading testing on a smaller scale should be more reflective of instruction and offer information to principals, teachers, and parents for effective planning. The following recommendations apply to standardized reading assessment at a building or personal level.

1. Test scores should be interpreted by informed professionals. Standardized tests are a part of entry and exit into federally funded programs. Their importance cannot be overstated since judicious score interpretation is necessary for appropriate placement in special education, Chapter 1, and gifted education programs.

2. Multiple measures offer the most complete picture of any student's ability. A combination of formal and informal assessments over a period of time offers the most effective information upon which to base placement and instructional decisions.

3. Informal assessments, teacher observations, and student attitudinal scales afford genuine information about specific students. Their importance is greater than statistical data from standardized tests.

4. Reading assessment should reflect the curriculum and student diversity situated in local classrooms.

These recommendations are ideals—goals to be reached. Their accomplishment would make reading instruction interactive with reading assessment, based on the principle that reading is an on-going process specific to the task, the text, and the reader. Reading assessment would offer results that could be useful for instruction. A dichotomy between reading instruction and reading assessment would no longer exist.

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PART II

Facilitating Change

The Reading-Writing Relationship: Empirical Evidence for the Reconceptualization of Literacy

June E. Barnhart

Reading and writing provide access to literacy, and the home and school contexts serve as the primary forums for literacy development. Knowing how reading and writing are related to each other is essential for teachers because it helps to make classroom instruction both efficient and effective across all grade levels and content areas. If schools have the power to create an environment where reading and writing can flourish and students can develop into lifelong readers and writers, serious consideration of the nature of the relationship between reading and writing is an important endeavor. In short, how we view reading and writing influences how we teach the essentials of literacy.

Perspectives on the nature of the relationship between reading and writing have been varied. While differing viewpoints have been offered at one time or another, three perspectives have tended to dominate research and practice in literacy. These views have been: (1) The processes of reading and writing are identical; (2) The processes of reading and writing are "mirror images" of each other; and (3) The processes of reading and writing bear little or no relationship to each other.

Tied to the first two viewpoints is the assumption that the skills and abilities underlying reading and writing knowledge and processes are identical or highly similar. With this assumption in mind, curricular developers (e.g., Durkin, 1988; Moffett & Wagner, 1983; Stauffer, 1980) have argued in support of an underlying psychological identity or unity. In fact, it has been suggested that it may even be unnecessary to teach *both* reading and writing (at least at the elementary level) if they share so much in common (e.g., Graves, 1978; Shanahan, 1988). These first two viewpoints often have gone hand in hand with the belief that reading involved reception, and writing involved production.

In examining these two perspectives, let us consider the following two statements: (1) "I read *A Tale of Two Cities*" and (2) "I wrote *A Tale of Two Cities*." Some of us can make the first claim; however, none of us can make the second claim. The "mirror image" metaphor proposes that the reader follows the same linguistic-cognitive steps in inverse order to that followed by the writer in creating the text. While these two positions have gained some support at various times in the past, a third viewpoint has been considerably more robust and influential in shaping research efforts and instructional materials and procedures.

This third view is reflected by individuals who propose that the processes of reading and writing bear little or no relationship to each other, and the roots of this view can be traced at least as far back as the traditional concept of reading readiness. Since the mid-1920s, this concept has had a widespread impact on how reading and writing have been taught. Reading was viewed as being closely tied to physical and mental maturation, and it was believed that children had to reach a certain mental age and be instructed in certain prerequisite reading readiness skills before they could learn to read (Durkin, 1966).

This perspective also assumed that writing instruction should occur only after children had been formally taught to read. While actual reading instruction was usually delayed until the middle part of first grade, writing instruction was postponed until even later, often until second or third grade. Although occasionally challenged, this view of literacy learning has played a prominent role in directing research efforts. Further, the focus of instruction has been on reading and the effectiveness of the various methods used to teach it in isolation from writing. Many conclude that, for the most part, we have studied reading and writing as independent entities.

Historically, our study of reading and writing has generally focused on selected aspects within each of the domains of reading and writing. For example, we have studied the mental processes of word recognition (e.g., LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; McClelland & Rumelhart, 1981; McCusker, Gough, & Bias, 1981), eye movements and their relation to rate of reading (e.g., Huey, 1908; Llewellyn-Thomas, 1962; Rayner, 1983), and rhetorical features of composition with a view toward cataloging "good" characteristics to include in

one's written work (e.g., Manly, Rickert, & Freeman, 1937; Rosenberg, 1976). Such studies have focused on the differences between reading and writing, and this approach has formed the basis for widespread curricular decisions and instructional practices.

Currently, however, many individuals propose that a fourth position has gained prominent visibility. Shanahan (1990) states that while the idea of reading and writing together has been with us for a long time, it is only recently that this relationship has undergone serious examination. Along these lines, others assert that over the past decade our approaches to understanding reading and writing have broadened (Fitzgerald, 1990) to focus on the links and similarities between reading and writing. Some now suggest that our perspective has shifted to consider reading and writing as driven by the same underlying cognitive and sociocultural processes and that the learning of one supports the other. Further, it has been proposed that this change in perspective has "contributed to the revitalization of literacy instruction and materials in classrooms" (Shanahan, 1990, p. vii).

In an effort to offer a theoretical explanation for the interrelationship between reading and writing processes, Rosenblatt (1989) draws on the concept of "transaction" discussed almost 50 years ago by Dewey and Bentley (1949). Instead of separate, already-defined entities acting on one another (an interaction), the term "transaction" designates relationships where each element conditions and is conditioned by the other in a mutually constituted situation. Along these lines, all human activity is constantly in transaction in a reciprocal relationship with the environment. Rosenblatt (1989) suggests that the nature of the transaction between author and reader through the text and the parallels in the reading and writing processes lead us to assume that the teaching of one can affect the student's performance in the other, and teaching should then permit "constructive cross-fertilization of the reading and writing processes" (Rosenblatt, 1989, p. 172).

Some individuals even proclaim that the 1980's can be characterized as the time when the reading-writing connection began (e.g., Teale & Martinez, 1989). Experimental or case study information (e.g., Barnhart, 1988, 1991; Dyson, 1986; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1982; Sulzby, 1985; Sulzby & Barnhart, 1992), as well as theoretical

discussions (e.g., Goodman & Goodman, 1983; Smith, 1983) have come from work in emergent literacy concerning the relation between reading and writing development in young children.

Research in emergent literacy over the past decade shows that young children begin to construct writing at the same time or shortly before they begin to read individual words (Calkins, 1980; Clay, 1975; Ferreiro & Teberosky, 1982). The theoretical framework for emergent literacy contains a description of reading and writing as cyclical and complementary processes (Clay, 1985). Thus, as children read and write, they make the associations that form their underlying understanding about both processes. As Barr (1985) expresses it, reading and writing "are best developed through lively and sustained interaction with the other" (p. 104). This work suggests that while the reading and writing processes are different and are not mirror images of each other, they are clearly related and mutually reinforce each other in the process of literacy development. It may well be that this shift in perspective concerning early literacy development in young children has overall redirected our focus in literacy to include writing as well as reading across all grade levels.

Still, other individuals warn that studies of writing remain disconnected from studies of reading (e.g., Murphy, 1989), and that few studies have actually centered on the connection (or similarities) between reading and writing (e.g., Dobson, 1985). In terms of the classroom setting, it is claimed that in many American elementary schools from 45 to 120 minutes each day are devoted solely to reading (Mason, 1989). If writing instruction appears at all in these schools, it is divorced in time and place from reading instruction and in contexts where no parallels can easily be drawn between the processes of reading and writing. For example, children may know that they write stories, but many do not know that the texts they read have authors. Much that is considered "writing instruction" consists of instruction in usage, punctuation, mechanics, and penmanship and is separated from the production of whole text.

Further, Shanahan (1990) suggests that discrete undergraduate and graduate programs in reading and writing in many universities are also clear statements that the two processes bear so little relation to each other that they do not require being taught in an integrated fashion. Departments of English often treat student writing only in

isolated, special programs just as language arts curricula in many elementary schools are actually exclusively reading programs. These, then, are some of the counter claims made by individuals who continue to maintain that reading and writing are still viewed as separate processes.

Several salient questions arise from these conflicting characterizations of our current perspective on the relationship between reading and writing. First, has there indeed been a reconceptualization of literacy learning that now considers reading and writing to be interrelated processes that develop concurrently and are mutually supportive (Sulzby & Teale, 1985)? Second, has our zeal to believe that such a change in perspective exists overshadowed (or even replaced) our search for significant and objective indices of this reconceptualization? In short, can we go beyond the prevailing ideological argument and present an empirical basis for the conclusion that there has been a reconsideration of our assumptions about reading and writing? Along these lines, the present study addressed two research questions. If we look across time and the relevant knowledge base:

1. Has there been an increase in the number of questions posed which focus on the similarities between reading and writing (including questions relating to research, theory, and practice)?
2. If such an increase exists, has it been widespread and uniform, or can differential patterns be described across research, theory, and practice domains?

Method

Database and Procedure

In an effort to answer these research questions, the present study examined the amount of attention given to the link between reading and writing across five core language and literacy journals during the last 12 years. A mix of research- and practice-oriented journals were selected that represented journals with national or international circulation. The five journals included: *Language Arts, The Reading Teacher, Journal of Reading, Journal of Reading Behavior,* and *Reading Research Quarterly.* The years of analysis covered 1978

through 1990. All articles in each issue of these journals were read independently by two scorers, and the number of articles which met the following criteria were counted: Articles that emphasized or had, as their underlying assumption, the link (or similarities) between reading and writing from a theoretical, empirical, and/or instructional standpoint.

Each scorer tallied the number of articles by journal and volume over the period of study. Initial agreement between raters was 97.3%, with consensus reached through conference. Volume totals were then converted to a percent of the total number of articles published yearly in each journal. All special feature elements (e.g., letters, columns, book reviews, editorials) were omitted from this analysis.

Results

Results of the analyses across the five journals over the 12-year period of study demonstrate two patterns: Not only were there similarities across journals over the 12-year period of study, but there were also distinctive patterns across the journals. These patterns are demonstrated in five figures, one for each journal examined. Each figure shows the percent of articles published yearly that emphasized (or had as their basis) the reading-writing connection for each journal.

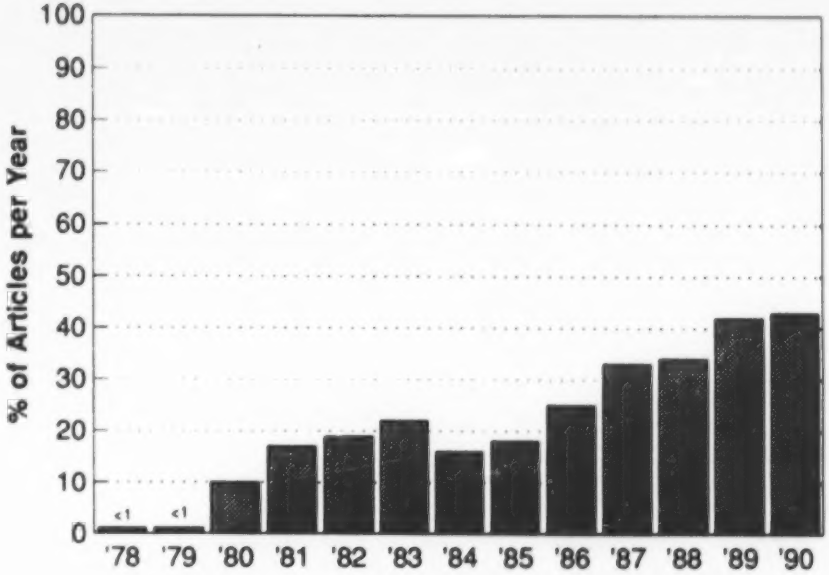
Shared Patterns Across Journals

Overall, results showed an increase for all five journals in the number of articles linking reading and writing over the period of study, with less than 1% of each journal's published articles emphasizing the reading-writing connection in 1978. Figure 1 presents the pattern for the *Journal of Reading Behavior (JRB)* and is illustrative of the overall increase in the percentage of articles published across the time period for all five journals.

Another common feature of this pattern across journals was a marked increase in the percentage of articles emphasizing the reading-writing connection that began sometime during the early to mid-1980's for all five journals, with the onset of the increase

Figure 1. Journal of Reading Behavior: 1978-1990

Percentage of articles: Reading/Writing Connection



occurring in 1980 for *JRB*. Since that time, there appears to have been a gradual yet steady increase in the percentage of articles that link reading and writing, with this increase continuing to the present for this journal.

Differential Patterns Across Journals

A closer look beyond these common trends, however, reveals distinct patterns across the journals. A more focused analysis shows that the actual onset of this increase has been staggered across the journals; moreover, there have also been differences in the patterns of acceleration.

Figure 2 presents the results for *Language Arts (LA)* showing that while the magnitude of the initial increase has been similar to that for *JRB*, the actual onset of the increase occurred two years later in 1982. This initial rise was followed by a sharp escalation in 1983 in the percent of articles that focused on the reading-writing connection, and this high rate has remained steady since 1983 for *Language Arts*.

Figure 3 presents the pattern for the *Journal of Reading (JR)* which shows the same pattern as the other four journals during the early years of this analysis, with less than 1% of the articles in this journal emphasizing the reading-writing connection in the late 1970's. However, the onset of an increase in reading-writing connection articles began in 1983 for *JR*. Since that time, the pattern is similar to that for *JRB* (Figure 1) in its slow, steady increase in the percentage of such articles.

Figure 4 shows the pattern for *The Reading Teacher (RT)*. The onset of the increase in the percentage of articles emphasizing the reading-writing connection in this journal was 1984—four years later than that seen in the *Journal of Reading Behavior*. Yet by 1989, the percentage of articles emphasizing the reading-writing connection in both *JRB* and *RT* was very similar. Figure 4 shows the more rapid rate of acceleration seen in *RT*, with a percentage in 1989 that closely approximated that seen in 1989 for *JRB*.

Finally, Figure 5 presents the pattern of articles for *Reading Research Quarterly (RRQ)*. Once again, the percentage of articles in

Figure 2. Language Arts: 1978-1990

Percentage of articles: Reading/Writing Connection

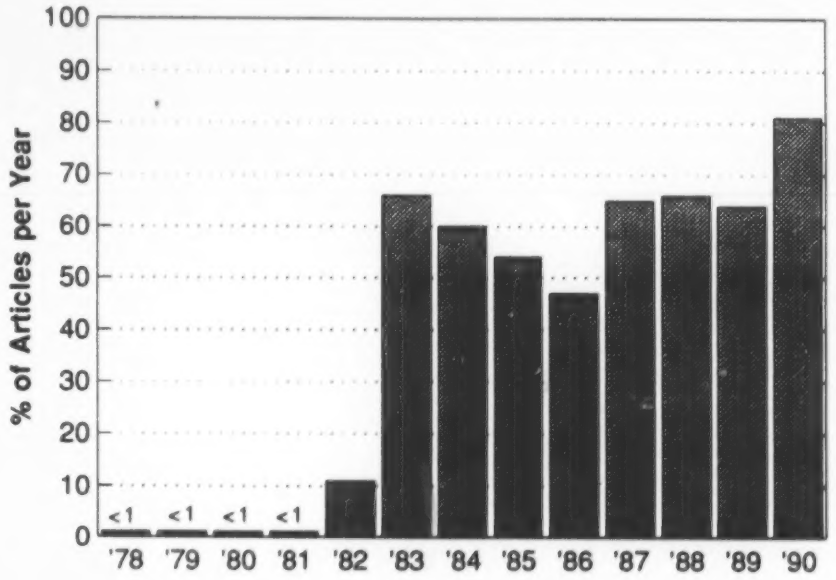


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Figure 3. Journal of Reading: 1978-1990

Percentage of articles: Reading/Writing Connection

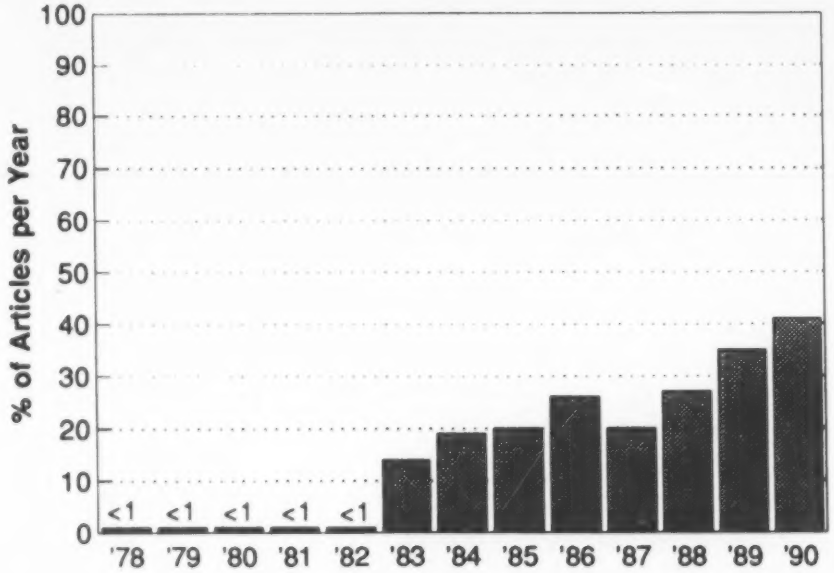

Figure 4. The Reading Teacher: 1978-1990

Percentage of articles: Reading/Writing Connection

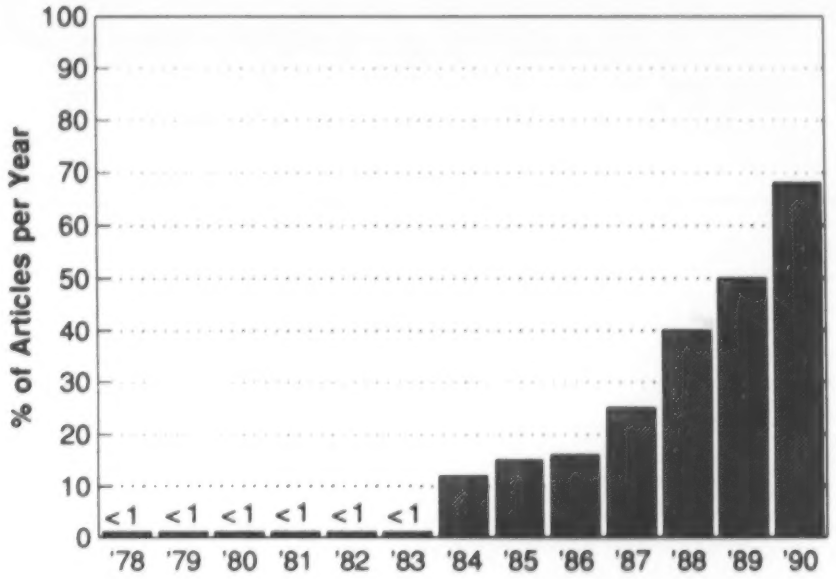

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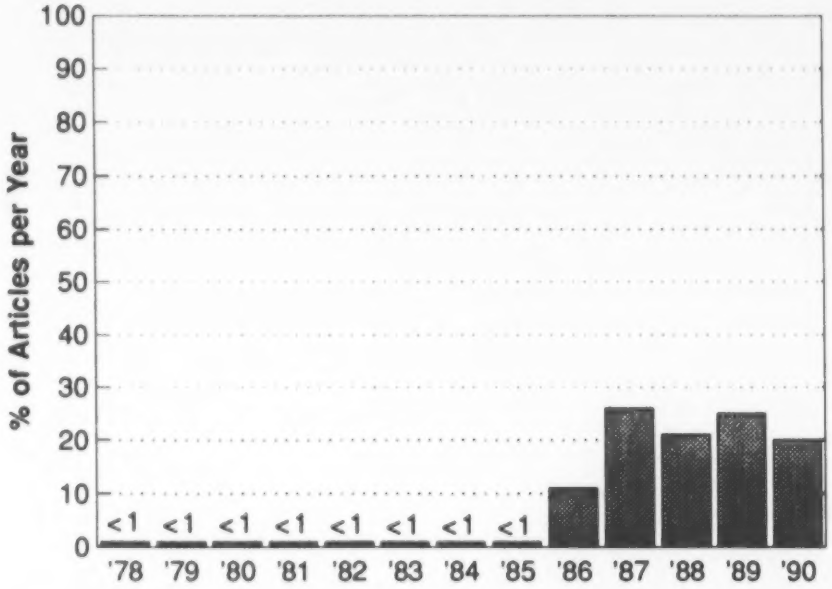
Figure 5. Reading Research Quarterly: 1978-1990

Percentage of articles: Reading/Writing Connection



the early years of this analysis was similar to that seen in the other four journals (i.e., less than 1%). However, while the percentage had jumped from less than 1% in 1978 to 10% for *JRB* by 1980, a similar magnitude of increase did not occur in *RRQ* until 1986 (6 years later). Since 1986, the pattern across the remaining four years of analysis in the present study is notably different in comparison to the other four journals under study. Figure 5 shows that the percentage of articles emphasizing the reading-writing connection in *RRQ* has remained low and constant since 1986.

Discussion

The results of the present study show that there has been an increase in attention directed at the link between reading and writing as reflected in these five language and literacy journals. However, it also must be noted that the differential patterns across the five journals studied here appear in general to align themselves as a function of orientation of the journal. In other words, differences in patterns can be detected in terms of whether the journal has a theory/research emphasis or a methods/instructional emphasis.

Looking across the five journals surveyed here over the 12-year period of study, it appears that a more dramatic increase in the percentage of articles emphasizing the reading-writing connection has occurred among journals that tend to address issues of an applied nature. Thus, in the journals that address immediate, practical applications or solutions to literacy problems in the classroom (*Language Arts, The Reading Teacher, Journal of Reading*) there has been a more dramatic increase in articles that have assumed a reading-writing link. Moving across the continuum to the *Journal of Reading Behavior*, where authors tend to ask questions and address issues of an empirical nature using a wide variety of methods and approaches, there has been a less dramatic pattern in the percent of articles that emphasize the reading-writing connection. Finally, a very attenuated rate of articles appearing that emphasize, recognize, and study the reading-writing connection can be found in *Reading Research Quarterly*, a journal that focuses heavily on theoretical issues and quantitative research in literacy.

Results from the present study prompt us to ask, "Is practice preceding theory and research?" The more accelerated pattern

observed in the practice-oriented journals suggests that this may be the case. We must also ask, "Should practice drive theory and research, or should theory and research form the basis for practice?" What repercussions and consequences for literacy researchers, educators, and learners come forth from our answers to these questions? While the present results support claims that there has indeed been an increase in the amount of attention directed at the link between reading and writing, differential patterns of this reconceptualization of literacy across journals prompts us to reexamine the interplay between theory, research, and practice.

As suggested by Tierney and Shanahan (1991), in spite of such advances in attention to reading-writing relationships, research on this topic must be viewed as still in its infancy. Results from the present study lend support to this conclusion. Few studies have examined the processes underlying reading and writing in contexts in which reading and writing are used together. Research that attempts to explore instructional practice tends to highlight the benefits associated with certain practices; however, these tend to be affidavits or testimonials concerning general effects rather than documented accounts or explanations of effects (Tierney & Shanahan, 1991). Research on literacy is needed that explores reading and writing with all of the accompanying complexity and does not revert to studying reading and writing separately. Results from the present study suggest that literacy *practitioners* are no longer willing to choose between a reading or writing agenda. As suggested by Tierney and Shanahan (1991), likewise, "for *researchers* in the field of literacy the focus of research should not be *between* reading but *of* reading and writing together" (p. 274).

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Family Histories: A Connection to the Past and the Future

Barbara Kutterer Haas

Nearly ten years ago, I began incorporating historical literature into my eighth grade reading curriculum hoping to make the periods of history my students were studying more personal and meaningful. Throughout the years, ideas related to whole language, writing workshop, and reader response to literature were incorporated effectively into the reading units. The only void was the literature of local history which I thought was an impossible gap to fill.

One evening, my husband introduced me to a spiral-bound book written by a 95-year-old Rotarian. He had checked it out of the genealogy section of the local public library. It was a family history of sorts that told in story form what it was like to live in the community from nearly 100 years ago to more recent times. The book touched on such topics as family life, sickness, food, Christmas, toys, games, pets, employment, war, and the hometown. The wealth of local history in the text sparked my curiosity. But it was the personal approach in writing style and the fact that the gentleman was well known throughout the community that increased my interest.

I was so captivated by the book that I requested and was granted permission by the author to photocopy the book and present it to my students. My classes were as captivated by the account of late 1800's life in our community as I was. Not one of the novels, short stories, poems, or biographies that I had incorporated with any other historical time period had ever aroused the degree of interest that this family history did and continues to do. My students and their parents inundated me with artifacts, verbal stories, and old diaries. Students brought in equally fascinating family histories, similar to the one we were using in class. I was overwhelmed with materials and ideas to connect the present with the past. I realized that something different was happening. It was as if the program had come to life. What was once casual observation by my students became personal involvement.

In this article, I will explain how a local literary piece was used to personalize the history of our community for my students. I have organized the process into the following: the rationale for using family histories in the classroom, ideas for building background, involvement activities, and suggestions for connecting the past, present, and future.

Rationale for Family History

My students and I were experiencing a form of transaction—an activity in which the reader recreates the text and confers meaning on the work. All reading falls somewhere on a continuum between efferent transaction, "the reader's attention is focused mainly on what the words refer to, on what is to be taken away from the transaction," and aesthetic transaction, "the reader's attention is focused on what he is living through during the reading event" (Rosenblatt, 1985, p. 37). The reading of the history text was efferent transaction at one end of the continuum, while the reading of the family history was aesthetic transaction at the other end of the continuum, and the genre I had used in other historical reading units fell somewhere in between the two poles.

The family history with its personal qualities of familiar names, places, and events brought the past into the classroom in a very real and meaningful way. The students were having meaningful transactions with a history text because they were making connections between their lives and the past.

What brought the topic to the end of the continuum was the folklore presented in the story. Renner and Carter describe family folklore and suggest how individuals are affected by it:

> Family folklore consists of the persistent behaviors, crafts, arts and stories handed down by one family member to another. They shape and define behavior, beliefs, and customs of family members in ways that most people do not realize. The study of family folklore helps people determine and define their consciousness of self. (1991, p. 602)

It was that consciousness of self which held us all in fascination. This family history described a community's folklore. A personal relevance developed and the readers gained an understanding of their community, their ancestors, and themselves. "Truly understanding and internalizing literature requires emotional involvement with the materials" (Glazer & Williams, 1979, p. 519). In a personal way, we felt similarities and differences in life between the past and the present. Within the reading an interest ignited; within the related activities a pride of roots was evidenced. The understanding of and pride in self was what made the difference.

Ideas for Building Background

Prior to reading the text, students needed to expand their knowledge of the history of the community. Although the history itself evoked its own emotional involvement, much of the factual information was foreign to the students. Activities needed to be planned to match various topics covered in the history. The following activities, which increased the students' comprehension of the material and deepened their ownership of the text, could be useful to teachers using family histories.

- Display items in the classroom mentioned in the story.
- Use photographs and magazine and news articles pertaining to the time period and/or author as a springboard for discussion.
- Purchase old reading, geography, history, and math textbooks at estate auctions and library inventory reduction sales. Mini-lessons from these textbooks give the student a feel for the subject matter and teaching methodology of the time.
- Incorporate demonstrations of a windlass, a hand pump, a divining rod, or any other historical artifacts mentioned in the story.
- Organize a walking field trip to view buildings in the community matched with old photographs and newspaper pictures. These photos might be found at local libraries or hanging on the walls of local banks or courthouses.

- Visit a transportation museum to learn about historical means of travel.

- Dress in a costume appropriate to the era studied. Catalogs with patterns for historical dress are advertised in the back of such magazines as *Civil War Times Illustrated.*

- Play music of the era. Such recordings are often available through public libraries.

Ideas for Involvement Activities

After reading the family history, many students showed that they had independently made connections to the reading by bringing personal family artifacts, family histories, music, and games to the classroom. To encourage active involvement on the part of all students, the teacher may organize a framework for students to present these materials to the entire class. The following activities could be used during and/or after the reading of the text.

- Plan a "Show and Tell" day. Students bring in any family artifacts such as documents, family histories, antique tools, clothing, toys, books, household items, and photographs. Each student explains the significance of the items to the class.

- Divide the class into groups to teach one of the following: a popular dance of the era, a recreational activity (e.g., marbles or blind man's buff), a chore (e.g., homemade soap or candlemaking), or a pastime (e.g., handmade table games such as swigmill or a string and button trick called "cutting wood").

- Distribute copies of old short stories popular with children of the era. Have students read the stories and give an oral group report on the content, probable interests of children of the era, and likenesses and differences to present day popular short stories.

- Have the students interview an older family member or family friend. Suggest particular questions for general topics

of interest to the students. Then have the students report their findings to the class. The following are some examples of interview topics and questions:

School

Where did you go to school?
Describe the building.
What was homework usually like?
What did you do at recess?
What did you eat for lunch?
What did you wear to school?

Grandparent

Describe your favorite grandparent.
How did he or she dress?
What is most memorable to you about him or her?

First Job

What was your first job?
What were you paid?
Where was the job located?
What hours did you work?
What did you wear to work?
Explain whether you liked or disliked the job and why.

Family

Where did you live? Describe the place.
Who lived with you?
Did you ever fight with a brother or sister? Explain.
What kinds of things did the family do together?
What is your happiest childhood memory?
Did you ever have nightmares as a child? Explain.
What was a typical meal?
What foods were special? When did you get them?
What was your favorite gift? Explain.

Ideas for Synthesizing the Past, Present, and Future

Studying and enjoying history and its literature is important; however, it is equally important to connect it to the future by hypothesizing and analyzing. A form of discourse synthesis, "a process in which readers (writers) read multiple texts on a topic and synthesize them," can be used (Spivey & King, 1989, p. 11). The students select ideas from the readings and activities they have experienced in the unit and organize those ideas into a new written structure. In this new structure, students provide links between related ideas in the unit and their experiences. They are asked to relate ideas from the past to the present and project these ideas into the future. Within the framework of the following suggested activities, a focus (e.g., clothing, music, events, lifestyle) in the unit should be addressed. That focus should be discussed in relation to the past, the present, and a projection into the future.

- A student may "become an ancestor" by writing a letter to his or her first grandchild to be opened on the grandchild's fourteenth birthday (or whatever age the student is). The letter is sealed in an envelope and addressed "To the first grandchild of _____. To be opened on your fourteenth birthday." The envelope would then be laminated and kept with the family's important documents.

- A student may write a letter to the author or his or her descendant thanking him or her for the opportunity to read the story.

- A student may create a poem, song, or mini-drama to be performed for the class.

Conclusion

Many years ago, Louise Rosenblatt presented the idea that the greater the ratio of involvement to reading, the greater the ratio of reading to comprehension and learning. In this unit, students are given the opportunities to connect the past and the future with their own present-day experiences. They are asked to become active learners through listening, reading, performing, writing, and interviewing. All of these opportunities, coupled with high interest

due to a sense of personal heritage, make local history and its literature an exciting, worthwhile unit. Experiencing the present as a consequence of what was and a manifestation of what may be creates a vibrant continuity of who we are. Tucked away in the genealogy sections of public libraries across the nation, family histories offer students a means to celebrate the past and to challenge the future.

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New Ideas for Reading Group Placement: No More "Buzzards!"

Mary Ann Wham

Slow Reader

I-am-in-the-slow
read-ers-group-my-broth
er-is-on-the-foot
ball-team-my-sis-ter
is-ser-ver-my
litt-le-broth-er-was
a-wise-man-in-the
in-fants-Christ-mas-play
I-am-in-the-slow
read-ers-group-that-is
all-I-am-in-I
hate-it.

Allan Ahlberg

Grouping students by ability for reading instruction has become an American educational tradition (Davis, 1991). However, in our earliest schools, classroom instruction was delivered in a far different manner. Because children of different ages and abilities were placed together in small one-room schools, teaching was primarily individualized. The curriculum, during these early days, was limited in scope and focused mainly on the three Rs. Students were given assignments on an individual basis and met with the teacher for correction and recitation. Grouping, at this time, was nonexistent (Morgenstern, 1963).

Eventually, however, the growth in our country's population, with its increasing heterogeneity, necessitated expansion of the curriculum and a more expedient method of delivering instruction. To meet the needs of this diverse population and the demands of the expanding curriculum, educators looked to ability grouping as a means of facilitating instruction.

As the basal reader became popular for reading instruction, teachers automatically divided their classes into three reading groups.

The rationale for this practice was that it placed students in relatively homogeneous settings based on their perceived intellectual abilities (Haller & Waterman, 1985). From a pedagogical standpoint, it was supposedly easier for teachers to deliver reading instruction to students with similar strengths and weaknesses as they could adjust their teaching techniques to the students' capabilities.

Today, despite the growing evidence of the effectiveness of flexible grouping (Froese, 1990), many classrooms still operate around instruction organized through ability grouping. Early in the school experience, sometimes as early as kindergarten, children are separated into groups for reading instruction. Those whom the teacher deems to be good readers become the top group, the average reader is placed in the middle group, and those who have problems with reading form the low group. Frequently the groups have aliases such as "Red Birds" and "Blue Birds" and of course the "Buzzards," but everyone in the class *knows* who is in which group! ("A rose by any other name is still a rose.")

Advocates of the procedure believe that it not only places students into very manageable components, but successfully increases the overall class achievement levels. Because of their own school experiences, many parents and educators support the use of the traditional three-group structure as the primary way of teaching reading.

Teacher Behaviors

Several studies, such as one by Wurthrick (1990), have examined the question of whether students, once placed in a reading group, receive qualitatively different instruction. She noted in her research that overall patterns of teaching behaviors do exist and that these patterns affect students' learning and their feelings about reading. For example, during reading, teachers frequently meet with their top group first and, in many cases, meet with them for longer periods of time than with the other reading groups. "Teachers may create a warmer atmosphere for the Blue Jays [top group], smiling more brightly, leaning toward the students and looking into their eyes more often. Criticism may be softer and more respectful, spoken in friendlier, gentler tones" (Wurthrick, 1990, p. 554).

The top group also has a greater opportunity to engage in real reading. A study by Allington (1983) revealed that members of this group are allowed to read silently as much as 70% of the time without interruption. Their fast, accurate reading also allows them to read more text than the other groups. According to Allington, the members of the top group read three times as many words per day as the low group members. Teachers help top group members develop independent behaviors in reading by not interrupting them as often when they make reading errors. By allowing the students to self-correct when an error affects the meaning of the text, the teacher encourages independence and the ability to use metacognitive strategies. Students who are allowed to assume responsibility for making sense of text are enabled in developing control over their own learning.

Being a member of the low group involves an entirely different kind of reading experience than that of the top group. The low group usually meets for a shorter period of time and spends the greater portion of that time on skill work. Ironically, those who need to read more seem to read less. It is only logical that developing the ability to read fluently is directly proportional to the amount of time and opportunity a student engages in the act of reading. For "Buzzards," the reading experience frequently focuses on the small parts of the reading picture, the sub-skills, and seldom, if ever, on the whole picture. Their reading is slow, labored, and halting (Wurthrick, 1990). They generally read orally in a turn-taking procedure that is interrupted frequently by the teacher making word identification corrections. As members of the group take turns reciting, the others are expected to follow along in their texts. This routine, of course, invites boredom and distraction, so the teacher spends a lot of time admonishing students for not attending to the task. Since time spent on behavior management correlates negatively with time spent on teaching (Brophy, 1979), lower ability groups are involved in actual learning tasks for briefer periods than higher groups (McVitty, 1986).

Teachers correct low group members three to five times more often than they do their top group members (Wurthrick, 1990). With these less able readers, the corrections are frequently of the graphophonic variety and focus on "sounding out" the word in question. Often, however, teachers supply the unknown word.

"Teachers allow less time for students to correct themselves and are more likely to identify a difficult word immediately in order to keep the lesson moving" (Wurthrick, 1990, p. 554). These frequent interruptions encourage slow readers' reliance on an external monitor and help perpetuate their belief that reading is saying the words correctly in order to please another person (Allington, 1983). Self-monitoring behavior is, in fact, discouraged and students in the low group are not supported in their efforts to become independent learners.

Readers in low groups spend a large portion of their instructional time drilling on isolated words and completing workbook pages and worksheets. The better readers, however, read whole books and participate in comprehension enrichment activities. While readers in higher groups may take home library books for reading, low ability students find themselves with flash cards, vocabulary lists, and worksheets (Weaver, 1990).

Social Stratification

It has been argued that the practice of ability grouping violates the principles of equal educational opportunity (Barr & Dreeben, 1983) and perpetuates the inequities of social stratification. "That is, virtually every sociological study of the procedure [ability grouping] has found that poor and minority pupils are substantially overrepresented in the lower ability groups" (Haller & Waterman, 1985, p. 772). Ability grouping, begun in the lower grades, often sets the stage for tracking in the higher grades, and the sorting process continues as students leave school and join their respective communities.

Some would say, however, that the presence of the minority-majority in the lower groups is a "statistical artifact" created by forces outside the school (Haller & Waterman, 1985). Perhaps a comparison to societal stratification is justified as it has been documented that once a child is assigned to a reading group, he or she is unlikely to leave it (Wurthrick, 1990). This condition of permanent group membership has been aptly referred to as "hardening of the categories" (O'Donnell & Moore, 1980). When a student is classified as a "Blue Bird" or a "Buzzard," the label is usually permanent. It seems reasonable to suggest that one way of preparing children for life in

a democratic society is to give them a democratic school experience. Ability grouping is the antithesis of such an experience.

Self-Esteem

Research (Gamoran, 1986) tends to support the contention that students in low-ranking groups have poor self-esteem and low self-concepts. Gamoran suggests that students in low-ranking groups have lower expectations of themselves and therefore achieve less academically.

> Children who come to school believing that they will not succeed in reading, as well as children who gain this concept at a later time, may become victims of a self-fulfilling prophecy. Believing that they will not succeed in reading, their behaviors and efforts during reading instruction contribute to making their expectations come true (Quandt & Selznick, 1984, p. 5).

These low expectations may in fact affect their attitudes about their future roles and chances of success in real-world situations.

In addition, low ability students' attitudes toward reading appear to be affected by their group placements. A study by Leverson (1972) showed that sixth-grade students placed in the low group expressed negative feelings about reading as well as negative feelings toward their group members. Conversely, the high group members had more positive feelings toward reading as well as toward their peer readers.

Reading Autobiographies

For an initial class assignment in a reading methods course at Northern Illinois University, students were asked to write an autobiography chronicling their experiences learning to read. As a part of this autobiography, students included their earliest memories of school reading instruction. Frequently their writing focused on their reading group placement and the feelings, both positive and negative, that this placement produced.

Comments from those who were in the top group are in great contrast to those who were not among the chosen "Blue Birds." For example, one student wrote, "Our class was divided into three groups according to our reading abilities. I was in the top group, the "A" group. I thought I was the best which encouraged me to keep reading. I used to read ahead of my group. My teacher neither encouraged nor discouraged this."

Another successful reader said, "This year was a very positive influence for my success in reading because I was in the top reading group and felt tremendous success at reading aloud. The teacher would not call on us in any certain order so I always paid attention and I could not wait for my turn to read!"

And still a third "Blue Bird" stated, "In grade school, I was always in the highest reading group and was bored. I attempted every word I encountered and took great pride in my ability to guess at the pronunciation of many words when reading aloud. Unfortunately, I was usually more preoccupied with sounding good than understanding what I read. The important skill was sounding knowledgeable, not being knowledgeable."

By contrast, students who were assigned to the middle or low groups have different memories. Consider Angelica who said, "My girlfriend was just a little bit ahead of me in reading so I would try real hard to keep up with her. She was in the top group and I was in the middle group. Well, my teacher decided I was doing well enough at one point to move up to the top group. I was really proud. After a while in the top group though, she told me I wasn't quite keeping up and was going back to the middle group. I was devastated. I went home crying that day and have never since forgotten it."

Many other student autobiographies focused on the pain of low group placement. One must question the value of a practice that conjures up such unpleasant memories 15 years later.

From a low group member: "The first reading group I had was in third grade. I remember that there were three groups: one for smart kids, one for the average students, and one for the children who had a difficult time reading. I was put in the low group. While

my other classmates were reading, my stomach would become nauseated. My left leg felt like it had a mind of its own and would hop up and down, out of control. My body would become tingly and I could feel myself beginning to perspire. I would count the paragraphs to where I would be assigned to read. Repeatedly, I read and reread the paragraph to myself. I paid no attention to the others who were reading. I was just waiting for my dreadful turn. When it came, it was hard for me to finish sentences because I was short of breath."

Another member of the "Buzzard" group recalls, "I remember my reading was slow, and I had trouble with the words. My palms would sweat, and the other kids used to make fun of the trouble I had with reading."

Another student, Stacie, remembers vividly her first-grade experience. Stacie wrote, "The next year in school, first grade, changed my whole life. My mom said that I was learning slowly in all subjects, but I remember reading being the most humiliating for me. At the beginning of the year, I was put into the "low" reading group. Not only did I feel inferior because I was in the low group, but because I was the worst reader in the low group. At home, I cried because my parents were constantly talking about my failure in school."

Group practices that focus only on placement by ability ignore the nature of the reading process as being a natural part of children's learning. Ability grouping relies on a comfortable and convenient view of the world which asserts that learners can be "homogeneously packaged for easy handling" (McVitty, 1986, p. 33). This instructional methodology ignores not only individual differences in students' abilities but contributes to low self-esteem and poor self-concepts among students. In addition, grouping by ability has not been demonstrated to be an effective method for raising the reading achievement levels of students (Lapp, 1980).

Alternatives to Ability Grouping

Educators will agree that changing conventional approaches to classroom organization is a difficult task. However, several viable alternatives to homogeneous or ability grouping are available. In

light of our growing body of knowledge concerning literacy attainment, the following suggestions for reading instruction are organizational patterns that view children as active participants in the learning process:

Cooperative learning groups. These are heterogeneous groups composed of four or five students who work together on "team tasks." The basic premise underlying cooperative grouping is that group members are motivated to help their group peers. Reading a literature selection and participating in a comprehension activity shifts the focus from individual performance to a group understanding and enjoyment of the story.

Reading buddies. Students pick a partner and read aloud or read silently together and then talk about the book and share parts of it (favorite part, funniest part). Working in pairs can also involve a peer tutoring paradigm. A student who has mastered a certain skill can help another student who may be having difficulty.

Interest groups. These groups are formed based on interest in reading a particular book or pursuing the investigation of a particular topic. The teacher can share small portions of several books with students and have the students form groups based on the book of their choice or the topic that interests them.

Skill groups. Based on need, these groups are usually formed for a short period of time. For example, the teacher may observe that several of the students seem unclear about using quotation marks. A group is formed for the purpose of instruction to clarify this particular concept. The group is disbanded, however, once its goal of clarifying the concept has been met.

Whole group. Whole group or whole class instruction acts as a unifying function for developing a sense of community and can serve the purpose of providing instruction in particular areas of the curriculum or for the introduction of a particular thematic unit.

Conclusion

The inequities created by ability grouping have been described as "buying the achievement of a few at the expense of many" (Oakes,

1986, p. 17). Literacy achievement should be a goal for all children regardless of their ability levels. Ability grouping appears to increase inequality of educational opportunities and achievement. Students assigned to high groups are taught more than students who are assigned to low groups and, clearly, every student does not receive equal educational opportunities (Wurthrick, 1990).

Based on these premises, it seems obvious that teachers should not participate in patterns of classroom management that prevent any students from reaching their potential for literacy (Wurthrick, 1990). The classroom should be a place where diversity is celebrated and encouraged. Its organization should "optimize children's opportunities and provide a forum where each child is engaged and supported in growing toward an understanding of his or her power to participate in the community" (Berghoff & Egawa, 1991, p. 536). Heterogeneous grouping will provide such a forum.

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Venturing into the Computer Lab: What Do You Pack for a Quest?

Janet M. Beyersdorfer

Accepting a teaching position and embarking on a mythic quest are remarkably similar experiences. Mythic heroes battle monsters and outwit evil forces to rescue a loved one or to return an artifact to its rightful owner. Teaching resembles this mythic quest with its obstacles to be overcome by the teacher-hero's skill, cunning, and luck, or through the intervention of apparently magical forces. The villains of education may be less well defined than those in mythic tales, but so may be the profession's heroes and heroines.

Literature describing the teaching experience has received increasing attention from educators and the public. Frye (1963) believed that "myth is and has always been an integral part of literature" (p. 21). Literature describing the teaching experience does not exclude mythic elements. Campbell (1949) suggested that stories retell the monomyth, a pattern that represents the rites of passage through a cycle of separation, initiation, and return; he maintains that all literature contains this cycle. Bruner (1959) argued that myth "serves not only as a pattern toward which one aspires, but also as a criterion for the self-critic" (p. 281). It is appropriate that the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development recently described the importance of engaging teachers in reflective thinking to promote change. In an issue of *Educational Leadership* titled "The Reflective Educator," the authors suggested that teachers contemplate their changing professional roles by studying literature (Tama & Peterson, 1991), producing response journals (Surbeck, Park Han, & Moyer, 1991), reflecting on their experiences through writing (Wibel, 1991), and engaging in research (Mohlman Sparks-Langer & Berstein Colton, 1991; Sagor, 1991). In other words, teachers should write about and reflect upon their past practices, set new goals, and acknowledge their achievements. In the tradition of Campbell, Frye, and Bruner, this reflective emphasis replicates the archetypal patterns of the mythic quest.

Storytelling serves to validate experience, to record change, and to empower progress. More importantly, teachers know that storytelling invites discussion; so I share my experiences with the hope of

encouraging others to set forth on such a journey. I left the relative security of my eighth-grade language arts classroom for the experience of working as a traveling computer writing specialist for 900 third-grade through sixth-grade students.

Reflecting on the Need for Change

I knew it was time for change when I saw my most terrifying nightmare captured in a *Kappan* cartoon: A cave dweller was laboriously chiseling a stone slab into a wheel while a child sat nearby folding and flying paper airplanes (Hauser, 1990). There was no caption, but I recognized a new dimension to the term *generation gap*. Here was a reference not only to age differences in mores and values, but to the disparity between adults and children in their vision of a technologically advanced society.

The teacher's role in affecting change was an issue for me, too. Was my reticence toward technology use transferring to my students? I began to question how I could prepare students for a technologically sophisticated future if I used the tools of the past, was unaware of present educational technology, and was apprehensive about the classroom of the future. Were computers tools or toys? Was technology an innovative instrument for problem solving, or a rebellious mechanism creating management problems?

My beliefs and my fears demanded reexamination. Collaborative groups were a part of my classroom organization, but was I willing to team teach with a machine? Could I understand the mechanics of technology well enough to use a computer as a partner? What modifications to instruction and classroom organization would be needed if students worked at individual computer stations? Would the lack of equipment provoke management problems? What resources were available to help integrate existing curriculum objectives with the technology? Most alarmingly, where would I find the time to learn to work with technology? I was uncertain about the new adventure, and I wondered, "What skills will I need to develop? What beliefs should I abandon? Who will work with me?"

Through the *Kappan* cartoon, I had seen myself as a potential dinosaur—a teacher whom time had passed by. Dinosaurs may be popular with students, but can you learn about new technology from

a dinosaur? My students were familiar with Mario Brothers, Carmen Sandiego, and Nintendo, but I taught with filmstrips, videos, and a tape recorder rather than with videodiscs, online databases, and modems. I was determined not to become a dinosaur. I needed to invest my time to acquire an educational future that I wanted to share.

Packing for a Quest

The mythical hero begins a quest by leaving familiar surroundings carrying a few possessions. My first step was to search my bookshelves for a guidebook about technology use, but there was a conspicuous absence of material about integrating technology into classroom instruction. The catalogs from the International Reading Association and the National Council of Teachers of English became rich resources to ferret out new information. There were also educational journals (e.g., *Computers and Composition*, a publication of the University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign and Michigan Technological University) devoted solely to theory and research about teaching the writing process using computers. Professional journals (*The Reading Teacher, The Journal of Reading*, and *Written Communication*) published articles exploring the ramifications of computer use upon literacy development.

Seeing the vastness of the territory I had chosen to explore, I wondered if my prior knowledge and experience would be helpful. Fortunately, I recognized that reading and writing research had influenced the development of software about the writing process. I was relieved to learn that my prior knowledge about models of reading and writing, techniques for improving comprehension, and methods of supporting the writing process were still pertinent and could guide my instructional decisions in the computer lab.

Additional support came from unexpected sources. I was delighted to read that the majority of the "accomplished" computer teachers described in a study by Sheingold and Hadley (1990) had been teaching for thirteen or more years and were between the ages of 40 and 49. This was the first misconception that I had to reconsider—the belief that I was an oddity, a veteran teacher experimenting with technology. It was reassuring to discover that other experienced teachers had taken this path before me!

Selecting Companions for the Quest

Just as King Arthur had the counsel of Merlin, teachers venturing into the computer lab can find solace and assistance working with a colleague. Graves (1991) suggested that "pioneering new practices is an energy-producing event of the highest order" (p. 2). Although it is helpful to take the journey with a more knowledgeable peer, two novice explorers can help each other discover how to make instruction exciting for students.

The most delightful individuals to encounter are the students who willingly join the quest. When you say to them, "Let's find out how..." or, "Let's see if..." there is genuine collaboration since the boundaries between the expert and the novice are blurred. I have heard students ask with a sense of wonder, "How did you do that?" Sixth graders implore, "Show me how!" It's fascinating to listen to the children take ownership of their work with the computer. When we begin working, the newcomers say, "The computer made a mistake." Later they concede, "I made a mistake, and the computer isn't doing what it should." Finally, the students' questions reflect command of the process, "How can I get the computer to...?"

Adventuring alone like Charles Lindberg or Amelia Earhart does not appeal to me. Having companions on the quest makes the journey more enjoyable as I explore the connection between instruction and computer technology. Together we search for answers to questions like, "How does this word processing program work?" and, "How can word processing be used to teach the composing process?"

Encountering Obstacles During the Quest

Reading research tells us that a student's misconceptions can influence comprehension of text (Alvermann, Smith, & Readence, 1985; Anderson & Armbruster, 1984). It came as no surprise to me that there was a similarity between these findings and the power of my misconceptions. My mistaken beliefs affected not only my understanding of what I read about computers, but these fallacies influenced my actions. Beliefs which I held about computers and teaching were revised as I recognized them as obstacles to learning.

Misconception One: Teachers need to be expert technical troubleshooters. Naturally, it is essential to have a working knowledge of the computer hardware and the software program that students will use. Nevertheless, my commitment to this misconception prevented me from using new materials and technology with my students until I felt able to solve any technical problem encountered during class.

Fortunately, I quickly learned that troubleshooting technical problems does not always demand extensive technological expertise. Troubleshooting can be checking all the connections between the components of the system, but it may also be knowing whom to call for help. Sometimes it's reminding students about a command or telling them to press the escape key in order to leave a problem behind. (It was tempting for me to solve the problem by executing the command; however, the children need to retain custody of the keyboard and become the problem solvers.) Sometimes it is best to say, "I don't know why that happened; let's check the manual."

I had been dedicated to the misconception that teachers need to be technical experts; however, this belief changed as I worked with students in the computer lab. Encountering difficulties provides an authentic need for problem solving, and the opportunity to model problem solving should not to be overlooked.

Misconception Two: Proper planning and organization will eliminate technical problems. This statement is patently untrue and probably represents a wish rather than expressing a belief. At best, organization aids prediction of problems and allows action to ameliorate the effects. Printers should be stocked with paper; printer ribbons should be well inked; formatted data disks should be available; and computers should receive routine maintenance. But even these precautions won't eliminate the possibility that a printer will jam, that a student disk will "somehow" get stuck in the disk drive, or that a monitor screen will inexplicably go blank and stay that way. No amount of planning can predict the little dips in line voltage which blink lights and devour data. Furthermore, experienced teachers know these events usually happen simultaneously, thus adding a spirit of urgency to minor crises.

Misconception Three: Computer writing labs are quiet places where students work independently. My classroom was a place where children worked collaboratively on projects, where conversation between peers supported learning, and where student-teacher conferences were routine. Because I was well aware of the value of classroom discourse, I'm uncertain why I thought that I would see my students silently working at the computer keyboards. Nevertheless, I was unprepared for the type of noise in the computer lab. Over the hum of 15 computers and the clacking of several printers, students conferenced with one another about the compositions they were writing. Students also asked one another, "How do I do this on the computer?" or "How did you do that?" Ideas and information were shared, but it was not done in silence.

Misconception Four: All students like to work at the computer. The word "all" should be the clue that this statement is false. Some students prefer to write with pencil and paper; some are intimidated by friends who are more facile with computer language and skills; some struggle to master the commands of a program. The liberty to make mistakes and the ability to acknowledge limitations are a part of every computer class. Permission to experiment in a supportive environment is essential for students.

Misconception Five: Teachers must acquire entirely new management and teaching techniques for a computer lab setting. Some techniques transfer easily to a lab setting, but there are contextual changes in classroom structure, content, management, and organization. Hayes (1991) lists the physical environment, the spatial aspects of text, and the social context as three of six factors not to be overlooked when studying writing. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that the context of the computer lab will demand adaptation of existing practices and invention of new management strategies. It can be rejuvenating to experiment with grouping practices, organizational techniques, and instructional methods. The latitude to try something with an eye to change can be liberating and exhilarating.

Survival Strategies for Successful Quests

Gage (1991) has pointed to "The Obviousness of Social and Educational Research Results" and experienced teachers may find a

certain familiarity with these strategies as well. Nevertheless, the following six guidelines offer practical recommendations for teachers using the computer for classroom instruction.

First, set the purpose of the class period. Evaluate the task you wish to complete and decide what technology (if any) can best support student learning. If the students are to begin composing a persuasive letter, determine what software can assist them during the prewriting stage. Some software programs offer students a variety of prewriting activities, and some guide them through the development of prewriting strategies. Careful software selection can support the focus of the classroom instruction.

Second, estimate the time needed to complete the task. Initially I overestimated the amount of work that students could complete because I underestimated the time they needed to become familiar with the technology, the time they spent in incidental learning about language and computer use, and the time required to execute the programs. As student experience with the equipment increased so did the amount of work completed during each session. Be sure to investigate the times the lab is available and schedule sufficient time in the lab for students to complete the assignment. A maintenance check may eliminate last minute panic situations; however, remember to accept that problems will occur and plan for delays.

Third, initiate procedures for student interaction and collaboration. Student partnerships at each numbered computer station were instituted because the lab contains fewer computers than there are students in class. At each station, students were identified as partner A or partner B as determined by the alphabetical order of their last names. This format eliminated the "who goes to the computers first today" question since the class session was designated as either a partner A first or a partner B first session. Student disks and program disks were labeled with the number of the computer station and were stored nearby. Numbering the computers and the disks allowed students to accept responsibility for the equipment, materials, and class organization.

Fourth, use the lab's resources—charts, handouts, and personnel—during the class session. A well-designed wall chart of commands, an outline of a process, or a flowchart of a procedure can

answer frequently asked questions and free the teacher to oversee other areas of instruction. Furthermore, consider that support personnel come in various guises: aides, parent volunteers, a computer resource teacher, or the students who can share their skill with others.

Fifth, monitor the purpose of student talk. Student talk often includes advice about programs as well as sharing information about how to accomplish a computer task. Unfortunately, students' conversations can become centered on social events, school assignments, or peers. Directing the discussion when students are in collaborative groups is an important component when working with students in the lab.

Sixth, watch the clock! Saving, printing, and exiting a program take time. Teachers are well aware of the time constraints in a school day, but students often continue working to the last minute. Procedures for ending the class session need special attention. It is often helpful to establish a ritual for ending the class. For example, giving students a five minute and a two minute warning prior to the end of class can be a very effective way to conclude the session.

Facing New Challenges

In a mythic quest, there is always an element of risk taking and uncertainty when deciding upon a course of action. Many opportunities for exploration beckon temptingly—including bulletin boards, windows, hypertext, interactive multimedia, and videodisc-based multimedia. Unfortunately, some technologies are too expensive for me to investigate, but reading can offer vicarious experience.

Most intriguing to me are the implications of hypertext upon the reading and writing processes. McKnight, Dillon and Richardson (1991) define hypertext as computerized text consisting "of nodes (or 'chunks') of information and links between them...when a reader selects a hypertext link, the 'movement' between the two nodes takes place automatically" (pp. 2-3). The effect alters the linearity of the text structure, and the reader constructs meaning by connecting information located throughout the text. Bolton (see review by Reinking, 1991) evaluates the changes in writing space due to the use of hypertext and argues that we need to recognize computer-based

formats as serious forms of creative writing. To this end, he provides a written text of his ideas and a hypertext version.

Exploring new technology and designing a curriculum are not the only issues for reflection. Several other concerns demand contemplation: the costs of innovation, the impact of technology upon the existing curricular demands, the role of the teacher as manager rather than as dispenser of knowledge, and the social interaction between student and machine. However, classroom teachers have the opportunity to become dragonslayers of the myths surrounding technology and education; it's an opportunity I find far more appealing than being the dragon who is an obstacle to change. Clearly, the adventure is not over. In fact, the quest has just begun.

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The Use of the Reading Diary for Obtaining Reading Behavior Data Among Adults

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What are the tools within the reading researcher's methodology toolbox which are potentially useful in the study of reading activity patterns among adults? One overlooked, but very useful tool, is the behavior diary. In this paper, we explore some of the uses and problems associated with diaries and suggest methods for fixing these problems so that diary data are made more reliable and valid.

Although diaries are often thought of as personal journals reflecting diary-keepers' innermost thoughts and feelings, we refer to diaries in a somewhat different sense. A behavioral diary is a highly-structured, running record of very specific and frequently-occurring events which is kept on a daily basis over a brief time period. Behavioral diaries require respondents to record each occurrence of the target behavior.

There are a number of investigations which have examined the reading habits of adults. These studies have employed a variety of data collection methods, both quantitative and qualitative, to determine what, when, where, why, and even how well adults read. Over the years, the most common methods used by researchers to obtain data on adult reading behaviors have focused on such quantitative measures as structured interviews (Gray & Rogers, 1956; Mikulecky, Shanklin, & Caverly, 1979; Sharon, 1973-74), questionnaires (Guthrie & Seifert, 1983), checklists (Smith, 1990), or some combination of these methods (Wolf, 1977). While these studies have added to our knowledge of adults' reading behaviors, the data are limited because they are based on subjects' retrospective reports and reconstructions of reading activities.

Ethnographic studies have also used observations, surveys, and interviews, among other methods, to learn more about the impact of literacy on adults' lives (Heath, 1976). Such research has tended to focus on the behaviors of illiterate adults rather than of capable

adult readers. When researchers turn their interests to the study of literate readers, we believe that the reading behavior diary offers great promise as a data collection tool.

In subsequent sections of this article we: (1) briefly summarize the advantages of behavior diaries; (2) review how reading behavior diaries have been used in previous studies; (3) describe potential methodological and data problems in using diaries; and (4) explain how investigators can overcome such potentially nagging problems related to the conduct of diary studies and subsequent data analyses.

Using Diaries and Logs for Reading Research

A potential advantage of using reading behavior diaries in studies of adult readers is that diaries can provide both qualitative and quantitative data. The type of data obtained depends upon the investigator's objectives and how the diary is then structured to obtain the desired data. For example, if the research concerns extent of reading activity among a sample, respondents can record how many pages of a given text were read and how much time was spent in reading. Or, if the goal is to determine the nature of affective responses to reading, diary respondents can record, in narrative form, their feelings and reactions to the contents of their reading—in the traditional sense of a diary. Behavior diaries clearly offer the kind of flexibility that is lacking in many data-gathering tools.

Examples of the kinds of quantitative data that we have obtained in our diary studies (Smith, 1991; Smith & Stahl, 1989) include the following:

1. type of reading source (e.g., books, mail, magazines);
2. amount of time spent reading each source;
3. volume of reading (e.g., pages or words read per source);
4. reasons for reading (e.g., work, school, leisure);
5. strategies used for understanding and remembering (e.g., taking notes);
6. perceived enjoyment of reading (e.g., a rating scale).

Over 7,700 individual data points were collected among 50 subjects in our first diary study. Obviously, diaries can provide a large quantity of useful data.

There are at least five important advantages in using reading diaries to obtain data on reading behaviors. First, when researchers use reading behavior diaries, they are able to "capture" reading behaviors as these behaviors occur in natural contexts rather than in artificial laboratory environments. Second, diaries can provide much richer information than interviews, questionnaires, or checklists alone. At the very least, diary data can complement the data obtained by these other methods. Third, respondents can record reading activity nearly immediately as it occurs, describe in detail (in their own words) the type and extent of the reading event, and provide additional useful information, such as interest level and reading rate. Responses may also be limited to a few entries, such as reading source and number of pages read, depending upon the diary format. Fourth, diaries offer a practical alternative for collecting "on-line" reading behavior data and are less expensive data to obtain than behavioral observations. Fifth, diaries allow researchers to collect a wealth of data while requiring relatively few subjects.

Use of Diaries in Previous Studies

A small number of studies published over the past decade have employed different reading diary formats to help investigators examine the reading patterns of various groups of individuals and the relationships of these patterns to reading ability. These studies provide empirical evidence supporting the use of diaries for studying reading behaviors.

Rice (1983), for example, asked 54 adults to keep a diary of their reading activities. The purpose of this study was to determine if reading practice has any effect on recall ability. That is, on recall tasks, do adults who read a great deal outperform those who read very little? The subjects recorded how they allocated their reading time, the specific materials read, and the length of time spent reading each item. Reading behavior was recorded every other week until five weeks of reading data were accumulated. Evidence from the diaries confirmed that reading practice had a positive effect on recall ability, and this finding was particularly evident for the oldest subjects. Older adults with high verbal ability spent more time reading than their age counterparts with average ability.

A somewhat simpler form of the reading diary, a reading log, was used in two more recent studies (Anderson, Wilson & Fielding, 1988; Taylor, Frye, & Maruyama, 1990). These studies were concerned with determining children's reading activities in and out of school and if reading practice had any effect on standardized achievement test performance. In both investigations, children kept activity logs in which they indicated if any reading was done during the day, how much reading was completed (e.g., number of pages), and how much total time was spent reading. Across both studies, time spent reading had the most significant relationship to reading achievement. Taylor et al. (1990) found that out-of-school reading bore little relationship to reading achievement gains. On the other hand, Anderson et al. (1988) found that *book* reading in particular contributes significantly to reading proficiency.

While the terminology for the recording devices was somewhat different across these three studies, any differences between the diary and logs appeared to be superficial, as both formats required respondents to record quantitative data (e.g., amount of time spent in reading). Completing a diary over a period of time demands a high degree of commitment, management skills, and competence on the respondent's part. So, it is significant to note that the Anderson et al. (1988) and Taylor et al. (1990) studies demonstrate the usefulness of diaries for studying children's reading behaviors. Despite the usefulness and apparent simplicity of diaries in literacy research, there are several issues of concern regarding the reliability and validity of obtained data and respondents' motivational characteristics. These problems are addressed in the next section.

Problems with Diary Studies

There are four primary attendant problems in diary studies of adult readers' behaviors. First, the validity and reliability of diary data are open to question. Concerns regarding the reliability of diary data arise because respondents may not accurately or consistently record all instances of reading due to failure to understand the task requirements, mental or physical fatigue, or simply a lack of motivation. Diaries are also subject to the limitations of all self-report measures, such as falsifying data and what is known as "social response set." For example, respondents may report the same pattern of reading on one day as on the previous to give the appearance

that they were reading when, *in fact, they did little or no reading on* the day in question.

Second, the generalizability of the findings from diary studies is of some concern because respondents represent a uniquely motivated and homogeneous group of individuals (Foote, 1961). Research with volunteer subjects is always problematic, of course, because some degree of bias is introduced. That is, persons who agree to participate may differ from those who do not. Individuals who are willing to keep diaries may differ from other samples in important ways, such as having more education, enjoying writing, and maintaining personal journals. Paid volunteers may participate due to the external motivation present (i.e., money), while others may take part for more intrinsic reasons (e.g., enjoyment). Intrinsically-motivated volunteers are also likely to differ from those subjects who are required to participate because of classwork or work-related assignments (e.g., college students or participants in workplace literacy programs).

Third, the timing of the diary-keeping task may not represent a typical period in the individual's life. For example, acute short-term environmental demands (e.g., childcare, work deadlines) may interfere with a person's typical reading activities. In our diary research with classroom teachers, for example (Smith & Stahl, 1989), several respondents indicated to us that the data collection period was atypical, as they tended to read more during the summer than during the spring. Several persons expressed concern that their diaries did not portray them as avid readers because other activities had deprived them of opportunities to read.

Finally, although diary studies appear deceptively easy to conduct, diary data are costly, in terms of time, money, and effort to collect, code or score, and analyze.

Methods for Overcoming Diary Problems

How, then, can these problems be resolved so that valid and reliable data are gathered from diaries? At least two methods can be used to ensure that obtained data are valid. When the investigator combines interviews and observational data with data from other more quantitative measures, convergent validity is attainable.

For example, respondents' diary reports of "reading enjoyment" can be compared with the results of reading attitude measures to provide a more global assessment of reading behaviors, interests, and attitudes. Predictive validity can be obtained by examining changes in reading behavior over time to determine if such changes support specific hypotheses concerning the effects of one or more variables on reading behavior. For example, what changes in reading behavior occur when adult readers encounter and attempt to resolve personal life crises?

What can be done to ensure that the data obtained in diaries are reliable? Carp and Carp (1981) suggest that by having respondents keep diaries over a sufficient time period (at least one week), reliability may be improved. Also, requiring diary data to be recorded for adequate time periods occurring over several occasions (e.g., seven-day periods every three months for a year) can provide a more realistic picture of individuals' reading activities and avoid the problem of atypical reading patterns among individuals. Time periods in which both an abundance of reading and very little reading occur may then be sampled. Such fluctuations in reading activities probably represent the typical reading behaviors of many adults (Smith & Stahl, 1989). Finally, reading behavior data for the first and last few days of the diary record-keeping periods should be eliminated from the data analyses to overcome respondents' reactivity, "warm-up," and "fatigue" effects.

A related problem in diary studies concerns the tendency of individuals to record less and less information over time—a "fatigue effect." We offer eight specific suggestions that can ensure that respondents stay on task, remain motivated, and continue to record other reading activities across the investigation period. Together, these strategies can help to ensure the validity and reliability of diary data.

First, a group training session should be conducted to orient volunteers to the tasks, provide instructions for diary-keeping, and to answer respondents' questions. The social atmosphere of the training session can also be useful in promoting group cohesion and helping respondents to feel that they are part of a group effort. Second, the amount of time that respondents must keep the diary should be limited, but Carp and Carp's (1981) recommendation of

a minimum recording period of seven days should be a rule of thumb. Third, respondents should submit their diaries for review after the first few days, and then be provided feedback regarding the adequacy of their recording efforts (Rice, 1983).

Fourth, respondents can be prompted in several ways to faithfully record data. For example, a novel but somewhat intrusive method is to remind respondents to record their reading activities via a pocket pager which beeps at random times (Czikszentmihalyi & Larson, 1987). Spot-check phone calls can be used to prompt respondents who can then be interviewed over the phone about the reading activities in which they engaged on that day. Relatively unobtrusive prompts include mailing brief letters or postcards to remind respondents to keep their diaries up to date. These methods may be used in any combination, but care should be taken not to harass respondents with constant reminders to record their reading activities.

Fifth, the diary format should be simple to allow for ease in recording data, and it should be portable (e.g., a notebook, a Walkman-type tape recorder), so that respondents can record their reading before, during, or upon completion of each reading activity. We have used an 8 1/2" x 11" three-holed paper binder and found this to be easily transportable, but we are experimenting with other methods. Sixth, *nominal* incentives (e.g., money or prizes) should be provided to participants to encourage their participation and to reward them for keeping complete and accurate diary records. Informing respondents that their record-keeping is "important for research" may not be a sufficient motivator for many people. Incentives should not be such that respondents participate solely to earn money, however.

Seventh, different diary formats should be pilot tested, and respondents' reactions to these formats can then be used to modify the diary so that it will better fit both the needs of the researcher and the unique nature of the population under study. An exit interview at the end of the data collection period can be helpful in obtaining more complete information about respondents' reading behaviors. Again, this can be done in a group format. Ask questions about both the individual's reading behaviors and the diary method itself. For example, what did the respondent learn about him/herself

as a reader, and what types of problems did the respondent encounter in using the diary?

Finally, there is probably no way to reduce the costs of conducting a diary study, but we suggest that the diary format be kept simple and ask for very specific information. The sheer volume of obtained data makes any systematic analyses time-consuming and expensive for the researcher. Still, such practical problems are common to most investigations in the social and behavioral sciences and should not impede their progress.

Next, we briefly discuss how reading diaries can be useful for a variety of purposes in both basic research in adult reading and in adult education contexts.

Implications for Studying Adult Reading

Many literacy researchers are interested in learning how adults use reading to promote their own cognitive, social, and personal development. Researchers need to first understand what adults are reading, how they are reading, why they are reading, and what they are doing with the products of their reading efforts. As we have indicated throughout this paper, the reading behavior diary provides a relatively simple but valuable method for obtaining data to answer these questions. Diaries can be used to suit a variety of research purposes.

For example, earlier reports have suggested that many teachers are aliterate; that is, while they are quite capable of reading, they do not do so (Mangieri & Corboy, 1981; Mour, 1977). This is obviously a serious educational problem because teachers are generally expected to be models of literacy (Gray & Troy, 1986). We conducted a diary study of 30 teachers' reading habits in order to determine the extent of their professional, leisure, and graduate school-related reading (Smith & Stahl, 1989). Generally, there was little evidence in our sample to support previous findings of aliteracy among teachers, although several teachers reported negative feelings about reading, including reluctance and resentment at having to read.

Reading diaries may also be used for instructional purposes such as in reading methods classes where students are preparing to

become reading teachers. Assigning students to keep a diary of their reading activities can help to foster students' awareness of their reading behaviors, serve as a guide for them to increase the scope of their reading activities, or to improve their reading skills. The reading behavior diary is an alternative to reading response journals which are popular in many reading methods courses (Moore, 1990).

Another potentially useful application of the reading behavior diary is to have adult students in literacy programs (e.g., Adult Basic Education) keep diaries of their reading activities. The diaries can be helpful in tracking the growth of adult students' reading skills and changes in the kinds of reading that students do. The diaries also can provide a vehicle for students to write about their reading experiences. These experiences might include both students' reactions to what they are reading and their feelings about their literacy skills development. This information can also benefit literacy instructors who must match instruction to students' needs. This means, of course, overcoming the reluctance of many illiterate adults to write. Requiring students to simply record data (e.g., list reading sources) rather than writing their personal reactions to what they have read may be a good way to introduce diaries. In a similar vein, reading diaries may be useful in workplace literacy training programs and research which examines the effectiveness of such programs.

Finally, reading behavior must be examined from the perspective that people read to accomplish personal and professional goals and satisfy particular needs. Implicit in this perspective is the recognition that adults are agents of their own development. Diaries allow researchers to examine adults' goals and needs without imposing their biases as tests, questionnaires, and interviews are likely to do.

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Revising the Reading/ Language Arts Report Card

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John Logan

With the movement toward increased accountability and emphasis on school reform, there has been a heavy reliance on standardized, norm-referenced testing, criterion-referenced testing, and minimal competency testing to measure educational effectiveness and school achievement. Teachers often review test data to gain an understanding of the instructional expectations and desired outcomes because they want their students to do well on tests (Valencia & Pearson, 1987). This practice can lead teachers to surrender their professional judgments regarding curriculum and instructional goals and allow tests to determine these critical classroom decisions by teaching to the test (Winograd, Paris, & Bridge, 1991). Unfortunately, teaching to tests that conceptualize reading as the mastery of small, discrete, and separate skills contributes to inappropriate instructional practices. It is often assumed that high test scores reflect skilled reading on the part of students. In fact, however, many assessment tools do not reflect the real reading process and practices which require readers to orchestrate semantic, syntactic, and orthographic information (Valencia & Pearson, 1987).

The misalignment that exists between the tests used to monitor student achievement in reading and the current research-based model of reading has been a concern for teachers since the early 1980's. Assessment tools need to better reflect a commitment to developing active, strategic, and motivated readers (Pearson & Greer, 1991). Valencia (1990) suggests that to accurately represent the complex reading process, assessment needs to be multifaceted and include student work samples depicting the cognitive processes and affective responses and attitudes. If the main purpose of assessment is to provide useful diagnostic information to document strengths and weaknesses for further instruction, assessment must be closely tied to the authentic reading and writing activities that we value.

Some state assessment programs developed in response to the educational reform movement align the test requirements with an

interactive strategic model of reading. For example, the Illinois and Michigan reading assessments have a "Constructing Meaning" section requiring students to respond to literal and inferential questions. In Illinois, items addressing "Topic Familiarity" and "Reading Strategies" are included. These scores are reported in relationship to the "Constructing Meaning" score (Pearson & Greer, 1991). Likewise, some publishers of reading materials have matched their instructional materials and evaluation systems to this model of reading.

Revision of the language arts report card is necessary to reflect these changes in reading instruction and assessment. Revising the first through sixth grade Reading/Language Arts report card appeared to be necessary in our school district for a variety of reasons. First, the present report card did not reflect current reading theory and research. Second, it provided very limited information about students' language development. An updated report card would provide a more accurate record of students' progress in the areas of reading and language arts instruction. Third, the revision would reflect current instructional practices used by the district's faculty. Finally, the revision would reflect changes important to the recent adoptions of a reading/literature and a language arts series.

In this article, we describe how our district undertook a report card revision. This description includes the process involved, the revised and expanded content, the issues to be reconciled within the revision, and the procedures for a pilot study.

The Process

Revising the Reading/Language Arts Report Card emerged as a priority issue for members of the district's Reading/Writing subcommittee chaired by the Reading/Language Arts coordinator. During the summer of 1991, sample report cards were collected from neighboring school districts for review and study.

The general format of the existing report card was maintained. Students receive a letter grade in each major category. Check marks are used to identify subcategories needing improvement. Subcategories are evaluated as they become an instructional focus. Using a consensus decision-making model, subcommittee members deter-

mined the major categories and subcategories to be listed on the Reading/Language Arts portion of the report card.

The Content

Four major categories describing student progress were developed for the Language Arts Report Card: Reading Literature, Expressive Language, Spelling, and Penmanship (see Figure). Ten subcategories were used to define Reading Literature: comprehension, vocabulary, word recognition, fluency, reading strategies, types of literature, literary elements, writing in response to literature, values and appreciates literature, and completes assignments. Two blank lines were provided for a teacher to add a subcategory as needed. Expressive language was divided into expressive language skills and writing process skills. These four categories with subcategories supported assessment within the philosophy of an integrated language arts program. Teachers were provided with definitions of the categories and subcategories. These explanations with examples enabled teachers district-wide to have a concise and clear understanding of each category and subcategory. These descriptors clarified the skills to evaluate. Also, the information aided teachers when conferencing with parents.

Reading Literature

Of the ten subcategories within this major category, six terms reflect a current theoretical view of the reading process. *Word recognition* replaced the term "decoding" to reflect the expectation that the student will use a variety of strategies to determine an unknown word. This change considers an all-encompassing view that the student will develop a sight word vocabulary, phonic skills, and use context clues to unlock a word.

The *reading strategies* subcategory reports the teachers' evaluation of the student's techniques for self-monitoring comprehension. The strategies include K-W-L, DR-TA, QAR, Think-Alouds, rereading, and adjusting the reading rate.

Types of literature refers to the student's ability to read and understand the various genres of literature and recognize the

Figure

COMMUNITY CONSOLIDATED SCHOOL DISTRICT 21
WHEELING, ILLINOIS

GRADES 1 - 6
LANGUAGE ARTS REPORT CARD

	1	2	3	4
READING LITERATURE				
Achievement				
Effort/Interest				
Skills: 1. Comprehension				
2. Vocabulary				
3. Word recognition				
4. Fluency				
5. Reading strategies				
6. Types of literature (Poems, Fables, Fiction, etc.)				
7. Literary Elements (Setting, Plot, Characterization, etc.)				
8. Writes in response to literature				
9. Values and appreciates literature				
10. Completes assignments on time				
_____				
_____				
EXPRESSIVE LANGUAGE				
Achievement				
Effort/Interest				
Skills: 1. Listening				
2. Oral expression				
3. Mechanics, usage				
4. Completes assignments				
Writing Process				
Skills: 1. Prewriting/planning				
2. Organizing and expressing ideas				
3. Revising				
4. Proofreading				
5. Writes for a variety of purposes				
6. Values and appreciates writing				
SPELLING				
Achievement				
Effort/Interest				
Skills: 1. Test performance				
2. Daily application of skills				
3. Completes assignments on time				
PENMANSHIP				
Achievement				
Effort/Interest				

characteristics of each genre. *Literary elements* indicates the teacher's assessment of the student's ability to understand structural elements, author purpose, rhythm and meter of poetry, the author's craft such as foreshadowing, and point of view.

Writes in response to literature describes the student's participation in activities such as literature logs, writing a new story with the same character, creating one's own story based on a pattern book, conversion of one literary form to another, and developing a story sequel.

Values and appreciates literature evaluates student's listening during a read aloud time, reading during free time and at home, reading a quantity of books, reading a variety of quality literature, and reading literature representing different cultures, eras, and ideas.

Expressive Language

Listening and oral expression skills remained unchanged. Much debate occurred, however, over including the *mechanics, usage* skill as a separate item since many teachers evaluate these skills within the *proofreading* step of the writing process. The subcommittee included it as a separate item due to scheduling and departmentalizing structures at the building or grade level. Teachers may choose to evaluate the *mechanics, usage* skill separately or as part of the proofreading skill within the writing process.

Under the heading *Writing Process* are listed its steps. The *prewriting/planning* subcategory evaluates activities such as brainstorming, generating topics, using graphic organizers, sharing experiences, determining the audience, using journal or diary entries, and participation during mini-lessons.

Organizing and expressing ideas assesses implementation by the student of his/her writing plan and composing a draft. Activities evaluating growth in this area include development of a good beginning, a clear focus, summary statements, and transitions between and within paragraphs.

Revising assesses the student's self-evaluation skills and ability to use appropriate suggestions of others to make improvements on

the current draft. This includes recognizing the differences between the revision and editing stages, rereading to see if the writing makes sense, using clear, exact words, and participating in peer and teacher conferences.

Proofreading or editing skills evaluates how well the student finds and corrects errors in the conventions of writing.

The *writes for a variety of purposes* subcategory refers to how well a student considers appropriate voice and intended audience, writes to persuade, inform or entertain, writes to express oneself or gain insight through journals or personal narratives, and writes to learn or clarify ideas.

Values and appreciates writing assesses listening to other children's writing and offering comments or suggestions reading to develop a sense of author, writing in response to literature, using books as springboards to writing, and writing for one's own purposes.

Evaluation Process Issues Reconciled

The subcategories increased the role of teacher judgment in the assessment process on the report card. The evaluation practices included paper and pencil documentation and the teacher's professional judgment of student work based on established criteria. Teachers needed to develop their confidence in this area because grades had been based solely on criterion-referenced tests, end-of-unit tests accompanying the basal reader, and skill practice worksheets. Teachers, with support from administrators on all levels, needed to inform parents and the community of this broadened perspective.

In order to assist teachers in evaluating the writing process in a formalized way, a Writing Evaluation Guide was developed. Two forms of the guide were available. One was a checklist with which teachers determined if a particular writing skill was absent, attempted, developing, or fully developed within a piece of student writing. A second form of the Writing Evaluation Guide followed the framework of the first guide but assisted those teachers more comfortable using a percentage to determine a letter grade. Unlike the first form of the Writing Evaluation Guide, the second guide included a

number value assigned to each skill based upon its considered importance. The Writing Evaluation Guide was devised to enable teachers to assess the student's application of the writing process and the components tested on the Illinois State Writing Assessment.

Pilot Study Procedures

Due to a long history of teacher and parent involvement in guiding curriculum, instructional decisions, and policy changes, the Reading/Writing subcommittee decided to pilot the revised report card. In this way, feedback could be gathered from teachers and parents after a year of actual use.

Two separate report card evaluation surveys were developed. One survey was developed to gain insights from the classroom teachers in order to make further improvements based upon their practical experience. A second report card evaluation survey was developed to solicit feedback from parents to determine its merit for them. The first two questions on both surveys were parallel to assess the match between teacher and parent concerns regarding the report card being an effective tool to communicate the student's progress. The final two items addressed issues specific to teachers and parents respectively. Teachers responded to questions to determine how well the categories matched the curriculum and instruction within their own classrooms. Parents were asked how well the report card provided information on how to help their children at home. Data analysis from the surveys was completed and a final report was made to the Board of Education. The survey results from both teachers and parents were overwhelmingly positive. The revised report card was well-received and met the district's instructional and assessment goals.

Undertaking a report card revision and pilot study could occur only with participation and support from administrators, teachers, and parents. For this reason, each person's responsibility was designated in advance and a one year time line created. The Central Office responsibilities included:

- Distributing the revised report card information packet to the elementary principals and classroom teachers.
- Providing voluntary inservice meetings.

- Communicating the revision and pilot study information to the community through school district newsletters.
- Conducting the data analysis from the surveys.

The elementary school principals' responsibilities included:

- Explaining the report card revisions and pilot program at their first building staff meeting.
- Preparing two articles for their individual school newsletters, one to appear at the beginning of the year and one at mid-year.

The teachers explained the new report card to parents at parent-teacher conferences and as questions arose. The parents and teachers, of course, were responsible for responding to their respective surveys.

Summary

Our school district chose to revise the Reading/Language Arts Report Card to provide a better match between assessment and actual classroom instruction as supported by the current model of reading. The revised Reading/Language Arts Report Card better assisted teachers in using more appropriate assessment data to improve instruction and to promote student achievement. It better informed parents about the strategies and skills their children were learning, and their progress in reading and writing. We know additional revisions are a part of our future as we continue to refine our knowledge of evaluation practices for a student's reading and writing accomplishments.

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ICARE: Developing Positive Attitudes Toward Reading

Eugene H. Cramer

"It was the best of times. It was the worst of times." The opening words of Dickens' *A Tale of Two Cities* reflect the status of reading in the U.S. today. The argument can be made that we are indeed experiencing the best and worst of times in our national literacy efforts. Reports issued by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) indicate that students at all levels in American schools are reading better today than they did when the NAEP's standardized reading assessment tests were begun in 1971 (National Center for Education Statistics, 1991). True, many students ought to be reading better than they are, but the general trend is upward.

At the same time that NAEP scores are rising, however, fewer students than ever before read voluntarily outside of their classrooms either for pleasure or for information. The greatest problem facing classroom teachers today may not be the students who can't read but those who can read but choose not to do so. Adolescents, by their own admission, spend less time reading for enjoyment and spend more aggregate time watching television (Mullis & Jenkins, 1990). Also, many young people seem to believe that they will emerge from school into an electronic world in which little reading and less writing will be required of them (Thomas & Moorman, 1983). The long-standing question "Why can't Johnny read?" seems to be shifting to "Why *doesn't* Johnny read, even if he can?" Thus, reading educators are faced with a curious dilemma. Although more students are reading better than ever before, fewer students are actually becoming lifelong readers. Too many students leave school as competent readers who either dislike reading or value it lightly. Further, this non-reading trend continues well beyond the school years. For example, measured in terms of the number of books read, about three-fourths of the reading is done by less than five per cent of the adult population. The question may be asked, "Why is so much time, effort, and money expended on teaching students to read at increasingly higher levels if a majority of them do not choose to use their reading abilities upon leaving school?" Are we increasing

students' reading skills at a cost of losing their willingness to read beyond the classroom?

In an effort to coordinate efforts toward promoting the affective domain in reading, teachers in Illinois have formed ICARE — the Illinois Council for Affective Reading Education, which was officially chartered by the International Reading Association in January, 1988, and became affiliated with the Illinois Reading Council as one of five special interest councils in Illinois. ICARE is the first council in the United States expressly dedicated to the promotion of positive reading attitudes among students at all levels. ICARE's goal and hope is that a majority of school administrators, classroom teachers, and parents will realize that *liking* to read is as important as learning to read, and that home and school alike are responsible for helping students to develop positive reading attitudes.

Because students who do not find pleasure in reading seem likely to become aliterate adults, fostering positive reading attitudes and the love of reading among students is vital. "Aliteracy" is a term coined by Mikulecky (1979) to characterize those persons who can read but who, for a variety of reasons, choose not to do so unless absolutely necessary. Aliteracy among adults seems to be an even greater, more shameful national problem than illiteracy which has received much more attention. Americans are reading less today than they did in the 1970's. A 1991 Gallup survey indicated that 24 percent of Americans said they had completed a book in the last week, down from 30 percent in 1975. Twice as many Americans said they had not read a single book all the way through, 16 percent in 1990, compared to 8 percent in 1978. Overall, about half of all adult Americans (48 percent) read five or fewer books in 1990, compared to 37 percent in 1978 (Gallup Poll Monthly, 1991). As further evidence of aliteracy in this country, Harper's Index (March 1992) reported that in 60 percent of American households last year *no* books were purchased. Another survey, conducted by the American Publishers Association, reported that 75 percent of the books sold in this country are purchased by a mere 9 percent of the population.

If reading is vital to the survival of our civilization, and many believe that it is, we must not only help students to read at ever higher levels, but we must also find ways to encourage them to become lifelong readers upon leaving school. Why? A remark

attributed to Mark Twain answers the question succinctly: "A person who *does not* read has little advantage over the person who *can not* read."

Many reasons for the discouraging trend toward aliteracy have been suggested: the omnipresence of television supplants precious reading time in children's lives; the dull content of basal readers and the boredom of endless worksheets or workbook pages can anesthetize young readers to the joys of reading; inept or uninspired teaching can have a deleterious effect; too much importance placed upon improvement of standardized test scores can lead to the neglect of helping students discover the pleasures of reading; a lack of parental guidance or the single-parent harried household does not provide positive reading models or eliminates the support and discipline needed by young minds. The answer is not clear-cut. Any or all of these factors, plus others as yet unnoticed or undocumented, may contribute to a student's dislike of reading.

Fostering positive reading attitudes has been a stated goal of classroom reading instruction for many years. In 1915, a classroom teacher wrote:

> It should be the teacher's aim to give every child a love for reading, a hunger for it that will stay with him through all the years of his life. If a child has that he will acquire the mechanical part without difficulty. (Mayne, 1915, p. 40)

Seventy years later, this idea was expressed as a major goal in *Becoming a Nation of Readers: The Report of the Commission on Reading*: "Increasing the proportion of children who read widely and with evident satisfaction ought to be as much a goal of reading instruction as increasing the number who are competent readers" (Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985, p. 15).

Classroom teachers agree with the idea that reading instruction at all levels should lead students toward developing positive reading attitudes and toward becoming lifelong readers. Research abounds to support this idea. Davis and Alexander (1979) conducted a wide-ranging survey of all research studies on reading attitude published in thirty American scholarly journals between 1900 and 1977. In reviewing these studies, Davis and Alexander evaluated the quality

of each report, summarized the results of acceptable studies, and listed the following conclusions:

1. Good comprehension is related to positive attitudes toward reading. Poor comprehension is related to poor attitudes toward reading.
2. Attitudes and achievement are closely related. Attitudes become more positive with improved achievement.
3. Intelligence is not an accurate predictor of attitudes.
4. Attitudes toward reading become less positive as age increases.
5. Gender studies have mixed results, with neither boys nor girls showing clearly that they have more positive reading attitudes.
6. Socioeconomic status and race do not appear to be significantly related to attitudes toward reading.
7. Parental reading habits in the home seem to have more effect on student attitudes than do such factors as parents' occupations, socioeconomic status, educational level, or the number of books in the home.

In summarizing research dealing with family contributions to reading achievement, Sartain (1981) suggested that "good readers come from home environments that are psychologically comfortable, that foster positive attitudes toward reading and learning, and that provide stimulating cultural and language experiences" (p. 15). More recently, a researcher investigating the literacy and motivational habits of school children in Chicago concluded:

> It is not that students cannot learn; it is that many do not wish to. If educators invested a fraction of the energy they now spend trying to transmit information in trying to stimulate the students' enjoyment of learning, we could achieve much better results. (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, p. 115)

What can classroom teachers do to help reverse the trend toward aliteracy? Much has been written and said about the need for classroom environments and teaching practices which may lead children to the pleasures of reading. Teacher-oriented magazines

such as *Teaching K-8*, *Learning*, and *Instructor* frequently present articles (e.g., Hepler, 1992; Freeman, 1992; Manning & Manning, 1992) that promote the development of positive reading attitudes. Many reading methods texts contain valuable information about the affective domain of reading, and conference and inservice speakers have presented sessions urging teachers to help students find pleasure in their reading.

Members of ICARE have suggested the following activities that parents and teachers can use to promote positive attitudes and lifelong reading habits:

1. Read aloud regularly to students at all age levels.
2. Talk about books. Discuss them. Relate them to life experiences.
3. Give books as presents and as rewards.
4. Discuss favorite childhood books.
5. Use practical and relevant materials, such as newspaper ads, driver manuals, recipes, and the yellow pages.
6. Provide opportunities to use reading creatively in dramatics, in creative writing, and in art and music projects.
7. Allow time and opportunity for quiet reading—both at home and school.
8. Most important of all: be a model. Show students that you enjoy and value reading as an important part of your life.

The members of the Illinois Council for Affective Reading Education are proud to have established this fledgling council as the first in the nation devoted specifically to promoting the lifelong love of reading. In its first five years, the ICARE Council has grown steadily. ICARE members hope that many other such councils will be established across the country who will join in its efforts and support the following ICARE goals: to collect and share practical ideas to foster positive reading attitudes; to sponsor and collect research in the affective domain of reading; to expand parents and teachers' perspectives about the values of reading; and to continue to develop ways by which pupils may become lifelong readers.

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